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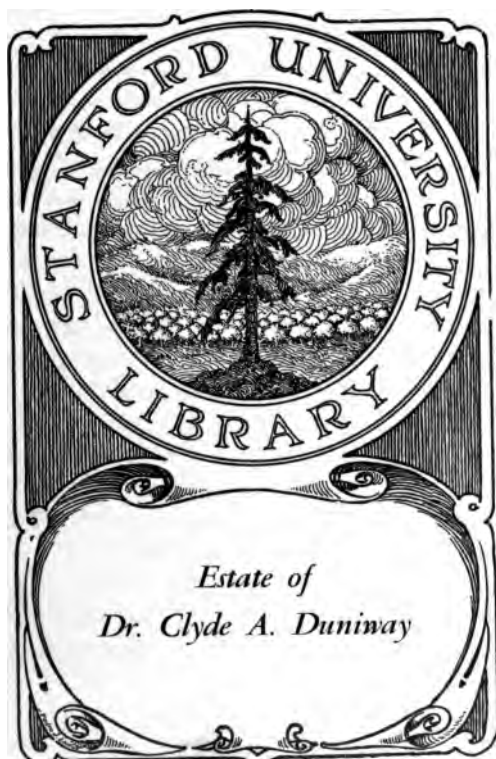
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SCHOOL EFFICIENCY MONOGRAPHS

PROBLEMS IN
STATE HIGH SCHOOL
FINANCE
BUTTERWORTH

To Dr. Duniway with the
personal and professional
regards of the author.



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SCHOOL EFFICIENCY MONOGRAPHS

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

BY

JULIAN EDWARD BUTTERWORTH, PH.D.

PROFESSOR OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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With an Introduction by

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"CYCLOPEDIA OF EDUCATION"



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PREFACE

WE need a philosophy of educational finance. School support is in a chaotic state. We have no clearly defined principles governing such problems as these: the proportion of all civic expenditures that should be used for schools; the distribution of funds among city and rural schools, among elementary and high schools, among general and practical courses; the place of the state, county, and district in raising funds; the control of these funds; methods of apportioning them. While a few conceptions have been accepted as fundamental and have been observed rather generally in practice, a study of existing conditions justifies the conclusion that all too frequently each school-finance problem has been solved as it arose, with little or no regard to its relation with other problems.

Obviously, a set of governing principles in this field can come only from a careful study of the many details involved. Several studies made during the last few years have contributed their share. The author hopes that the present volume may likewise do its part. To those who have undertaken similar studies no apology need be made for such inadequacies as exist. These may be overcome in time as our methods of collecting and tabulating school statistics are refined. The author has tried to point out plainly these inadequacies in order that they may be properly evaluated by the reader and so be made the basis for constructive criticism.

The courtesy and care with which state school officials, almost without exception, have supplied data, so far as lay in their power, and have given interpretations to complex situations is a most hopeful sign for the ultimate development of a school administration that

PREFACE

will be truly scientific. To these officials and to several personal friends the author is grateful for invaluable assistance.

JULIAN E. BUTTERWORTH

THE UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING

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INTRODUCTION

TWO problems of public school administration have assumed peculiar importance in recent times. One is the diversification of secondary education, adapting it to the interests of the individual students and to the needs of the community. The second is the use of state aid to accomplish results commensurate with the educational needs and opportunities, to stimulate rather than to retard local effort, and to render aid when most needed and where most remains to be accomplished.

This volume by Dr. Butterworth treats of both problems from the point of view of finance.

The public school system has become so large, its administration so complex, its financial problems so much a matter of expert administration, that special consideration and scientific treatment are now demanded. This volume provides such guidance to the administrator.

Its appeal is to a small class of educators; namely, to administrators or officials of the public school system, particularly to those charged with the conduct of high schools, and to principals and instructors in high schools interested in the administration of secondary education as it affects the character and purpose of adolescent education. To all these the definite and consistent conception of the problem, the clear and precise style of presentation, the accurate and scholarly treatment, will commend this volume.

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PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

CHAPTER ONE

HISTORICAL STATEMENT, AND OUTLINE OF PROBLEMS

A. DEVELOPMENT OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

THE history of American secondary education shows three fairly distinct periods, each represented by a type of school with characteristic functions, curricula, and administrative features. The first period is that of the Latin grammar school, covering the period from 1635, when the Latin Grammar School of Boston was established, to about the close of the eighteenth century. The second period is represented by the academy, and extends from about the end of the eighteenth century to the Civil War. Beginning about 1860 the development of the high school into a well-established type of secondary school ushers in the high school period, extending down to the present day.

Fundamentally, the growth of American democracy with its requirement for the *realization* of democratic ideals has been responsible for the present-day high school. The specific forces that have exercised an influence in this growth of secondary education have been many and interesting, but they may be grouped into three general classes: (1) forces demanding curricula suited more and more to the requirements of everyday life; (2) forces insisting on a secondary

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school under the direct and complete control of the people; (3) forces requiring a secondary school open on equal terms to all who could make legitimate use of its opportunities, without cost to the individual as such. This third group of forces involves, of course, public support of secondary education.

In a way, these forces are still important in shaping present-day secondary school training, though in some cases the emphasis has shifted and new interpretations have become necessary. It would be interesting and profitable to follow each of these forces to see just how and to what extent each is exerting an influence at the present time, but the scope of this study requires that attention be confined to the third.

B. SOURCES OF SUPPORT FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The Latin grammar school was ordinarily maintained by funds secured from a variety of sources.¹ Thus, the Boston Latin Grammar School was assured after certain prominent persons had raised by subscription something over 40 pounds. A few years later the rental of certain lands given by the General Court of Massachusetts to Boston was set apart by the city for this school. In addition to these sources there were occasional bequests and, after a time at least, the revenue from tuition fees. In the case of many schools endowments were made. This was especially true in the Southern colonies. The Colonial governments did much, particularly through land grants. In New England, especially, the community soon became largely responsible for the necessary funds

¹ Brown, Elmer E., *The Making of Our Middle Schools*, pages 31-104; and Jones, David Rhys, *State Aid to Secondary Schools*, pages 50-71.

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supplied by rates, appropriations, or direct taxation. Free tuition was granted in some cases, especially where the pupils were unable to pay, but "the greater number of pupils paid a regular fee which seems in most cases not to have gone above 20 shillings a year. Pupils were sometimes required in addition to provide each a fixed amount of wood for fuel."² The income from liquor licenses and from the licensing of hawkers and peddlers was sometimes set aside for schools. In the later Colonial period the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel and other religious bodies seem to have given something for school support.

In 1647 Massachusetts made a step toward the formation of a state system of secondary schools by requiring all towns with 100 householders to maintain grammar schools.³ Evidently the law was rather generally evaded. Action similar to that in Massachusetts was taken in Connecticut and New Hampshire, and a proposal for a state system was made in Maryland.

The academies were likewise supported by moneys received from a variety of sources.⁴ Endowments were common and to all appearances more important, comparatively, than they were in the grammar school period. Tuition also appears to have constituted a larger share of the income of the academy than of the grammar school, particularly in the early part of the academy period. Subscriptions, bequests, and taxes also were used. The following quotation indicates the growing importance of the concept of an education directed and financially assisted by the state:

² Brown, page 143.

³ *Ibid.*, pages 64-72.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pages 179-226.

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"While the academies are primarily institutions of semi-private or local origin, most of the states assisted in their founding and support. Several states provided systems. Georgia and New York furnish the most interesting early legislation, each in turn curiously anticipating the other. Georgia's constitution of 1777 called for 'schools' in each county 'supported at the general expense of the state.' In 1783 her legislature provided by land endowment for a system of county academies, and on February 25, 1784, similarly endowed a university. New York, on May 1, 1784, chartered a university and provided for 'schools and colleges' to be parts of the university (the grade of the schools not being specified). Georgia amended her university charter in 1785, requiring that 'all public schools . . . shall be considered as parts or members of the university.' The university should 'prescribe what branches . . . be taught . . . in each'; and should 'also examine and recommend the instructors to be employed in them.' In 1787 New York amended her 1784 act so as to authorize and require the regents 'to visit and inspect all the colleges, academies, and schools which are or may be established in this state.' In 1813 New York established a 'Literature Fund,' the income of which went to the support of academies. In 1821, Georgia established a similar 'academic fund' of \$250,000. But by 1840 Georgia had abandoned support and control of her academies in favor of elementary education, while New York began to increase both her support and control.

"Many other states adopted one or more of the features above described. Massachusetts in 1797 sets out a policy of land endowments of properly located academies. The next year Kentucky does the same for a county system. Later Maryland, Louisiana, Tennessee, and Indiana adopt the county system. To speak generally, the states subsidized the academies by one plan or another, leaving them, for the most part, to self-perpetuating boards or other forms of local control. Tuition charges were almost invariable."⁵

⁵ *Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. I, pages 22, 23.

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In some states a part of the revenue given academies by the state came from lands granted by the federal government.⁶

Apparently the sources of support of some of the early high schools did not differ greatly from those of the academies. Thus, we find that in Charleston, South Carolina, a tuition fee of \$40 was charged.⁷ In several cases the endowments that had been made for academies were used for the high schools when the academies were changed into these newer institutions.⁸ During the period from 1821, when the Boys' English High School was established in Boston, until about 1875 there was much discussion of the relative merits of the academy and the high school.⁹ Such discussion tended to bring clearly to consciousness the necessity of public support of the high school if it was to become a school free to all the people and under the direct control of the people.

In Massachusetts the law of 1647, modified by later laws, requiring certain towns to maintain grammar schools was reenacted in 1827 so that towns of 500 were required to maintain secondary schools.¹⁰ In New York the policy of state assistance was also continued, with modifications from time to time in the method of distribution.¹¹ In some of the other states the policy of encouraging a state system of secondary schools begun during the academy period was continued, though in others this was not the case.¹²

⁶ See Brown, page 219.

⁷ *Ibid.*, page 312.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pages 312, 313.

⁹ *Ibid.*, pages 315-321.

¹⁰ Jones, page 73.

¹¹ *Annual Report of New York Education Department, 1914*, pages 137-140.

¹² Jones, pages 73, 112, 113, 117.

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In those states in which there was no legislation concerning a state system of secondary schools, something had to be done to make it possible for the community to tax itself for high school purposes.¹³ In some states special laws were passed permitting individual towns and cities to do this; in other states laws of a general nature, making it possible for districts to maintain high schools, were passed. In still other states high schools were evidently established without specific legal authority. In such cases it was inevitable that certain taxpayers of the community should object; the result was a number of suits to determine whether such action was legal. The widely quoted Kalamazoo case of 1872 was particularly influential in establishing the status of the high school in the public school system.

In this study we are particularly interested in the participation of the state in the maintenance of high schools. While a very few of the states, as indicated above, continued the policy of state assistance begun during the academy period, the year 1873, when Maine adopted her law for special state aid, may be set as the virtual beginning of the movement in the high school period that has developed special state aid laws for general high school purposes in almost half the states of the Union.

In order, however, to get a clear conception of the state as a factor in the support of high schools, it is necessary to understand the attitude of the different states toward permitting the high schools to share in the general state fund established for assisting public schools. In most commonwealths it seems to have been the policy to consider the high school as a part of the "common schools" or "public schools" and so to have

¹³ Brown, pages 352-355.

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made it possible in those commonwealths to use a part of the district's share of the general school fund for high school purposes if the district so desired. In some states such a policy has not been possible because of the interpretation given to the term "common schools" or because the constitution specifically designated the elementary grades only as entitled to these moneys. In a few states where this was the situation for a time, legal decisions, legislation, or constitutional amendments have made it possible for the high schools to share in the general school funds. The detailed history of this interesting phase of state high school finance cannot now be written, and probably cannot be written accurately until we have a history of education for each state in which this problem is given special attention. The following table does, however, give some information on this subject. In all cases, except where otherwise indicated, the information comes from the State Department of Education.

TABLE 1

State	School fund ¹⁴ created	Date when fund could be used for high schools	Date when special aid ¹⁵ for general high school purposes was adopted
1. Connecticut	1795	always ¹⁶	
2. Delaware	1796	always	
3. New York.....	1805	always ¹⁶	1784
4. Tennessee	1806	1909 ¹⁷	1909

¹⁴ Swift, Fletcher H., *A History of Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905*, pages 98, 99.

¹⁵ This information is from the school laws for the year cited or from the State Department of Education.

¹⁶ In these states the information has been qualified by statements indicating a lack of certainty as to whether this has always been the situation.

¹⁷ In Tennessee there are two funds, each forming a part of the

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

State	School fund created	Date when fund could be used for high schools	Date when special aid for general high school purposes was adopted
5. Virginia	1810	 ¹⁸	1906
6. South Carolina..	1811	always	1907
7. Maryland	1813	always	1910
8. Indiana	1816	always	
	1834		
9. Georgia	1817	1913 ¹⁹	
10. New Jersey.....	1817	always ²⁰	1907
11. Illinois	1818	always	
	1818-21		
12. Kentucky	1821	1912(?) ²¹	
13. Mississippi	1821	never	

general school fund: (1) the permanent school fund, the interest from which has always been used for elementary schools as provided by the state constitution; (2) the General Education Fund which was created in 1909. Of this latter fund 8 per cent is set aside for assisting county high schools. See *Tennessee School Law, 1909, Chapter 964*.

¹⁸ *Virginia School Laws, 1916*, page 8, section 11.

¹⁹ "Our constitution originally confined the use of state funds to elementary schools. Three years ago the restriction to elementary branches was removed." Superintendent M. F. Brittain in personal letter, July 1, 1916.

²⁰ In 1905 there was really a new affirmation.

²¹ "The common school fund of Kentucky is constitutionally confined to common school uses. The courts have held, in decisions heretofore, the term common school to mean practically what we now consider the elementary school. In 1908 the State Legislature passed a bill requiring every county in the State to maintain one or more county high schools, and at the same time provided for a county common school levy not to exceed 20 cents on the \$100 of taxable property, to be known as the county school fund. In 1912 an amendment was made to the law, making the county school fund and the money derived from the State for public education a single fund, with the express stipulation that all money coming from the state should be used for the payment of teachers' salaries. There is nothing in our law definitely stating whether or not this particular fund coming from the State to the county shall be confined to the payment of elementary school teachers. The question as to whether the county

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

State	School fund created	Date when fund could be used for high schools	Date when special aid for general high school purposes was adopted
14. New Hampshire	(1891)?	1866 ²²	
15. North Carolina.	1825	 ²³	1907
16. Ohio	1897	always	
17. Vermont	(1895)	no information	1915
18. Alabama	1828	always ²⁴	1907
19. Maine	1828	never	1873
20. Rhode Island...	1828	 ²⁵	1898
21. Pennsylvania ..	1831	always	1895
22. Massachusetts ..	1834	always ¹⁶	1902
23. Arkansas	1836	always	1913 ²⁶
24. Michigan	1837	always	
25. Missouri	1835	always	1913
	1837		
26. Texas	1839	always	
	1845		
27. Florida	1845	always	1903 ²⁷
28. Louisiana	(1845)	always	1908
29. Iowa	1846	always	

high school is a common school within the meaning of the Constitution, and the decision of the Court heretofore, has never yet had a legal determination. It is therefore an open question whether strictly state money can be used for the payment of high school teachers or not." High School Inspector McHenry Rhoads in personal letter, July 10, 1916.

²² In this year the high school law permitting the higher branches was enacted.

²³ According to information from the state department, the high school may not now participate in the general state school funds. No information is given as to whether this has always been the case.

²⁴ See also *General Public School Laws of Alabama, 1915*, p. 169.

²⁵ At least the appropriation of \$120,000 to be paid out of the income of the permanent school fund and from other money in the treasury can be used for high school purposes. There is no information as to how long this has been the situation.

²⁶ A law granting special state aid on the basis of classification was passed in 1913. In 1916 this statute was declared unconstitutional.

²⁷ This law gave assistance for 3 years upon the basis of the classification of the school. In 1909 it was declared unconstitutional.

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

State	School fund created	Date when fund could be used for high schools	Date when special aid for general high school purposes was adopted
30. Wisconsin	1848	 ²⁸	1875
31. California	1850	never ²⁹	1903
32. Minnesota	1858 1908	always	1878
33. Oregon	1859	always	
34. Kansas	1861	always	
35. West Virginia..	1863	always	1911
36. Nevada	1864	always	
37. Nebraska	1866	always	
38. Colorado	1876	 ³⁰	
39. Montana	1889	always	
40. North Dakota..	1889	always	1899
41. South Dakota..	1889	 ³¹	
42. Washington	1889	1895 ³²	1909
43. Idaho	1890	always	1911
44. Wyoming	1890	always	
45. Utah	1895	always	1911
46. Oklahoma		always	
47. Arizona		no information	
48. New Mexico ...	1898	always	

²⁸ "The state law of Wisconsin distributes the income from the common school fund and the 7/10 of a mill tax for the common school among the school districts of the state proportionately to the number of children between 4 and 20 years of age in the state. These districts use this money, and whether it is used for the common or high school is largely a matter of bookkeeping, as the money is never sufficient to pay more than the expenses of the grades below the district high schools. Where several districts have united for high school purposes (the grade districts being still separate), the state money goes to the grade districts and is not in any way paid to high school districts. This would seem to indicate that the intent of the general apportionment law is to distribute to common or graded schools alone." Superintendent C. P. Cary in personal letter, August 31, 1916.

²⁹ See Cubberley's statement in *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 19, pages 11-13; also Snyder, *Legal Status of Rural High Schools*, pages 67, 68. Since 1879, at least, when the new constitution was adopted, the high schools have not been permitted to share in the state school fund.

³⁰ At present the general state school fund may be used for high

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C. THE PROBLEMS STATED

This historical outline gives a background for the interpretation of those problems of state high school finance that are today in the course of solution. Now that the right and the duty of society to furnish free secondary school privileges have been rather generally accepted in America, attention should be directed to the extent to which this principle has been actually applied and to its new applications and implications.

1. There is the problem of equalization of burdens. Even in the Colonial period it was realized that the state should do something toward relieving the burden involved in the maintenance of secondary schools. As time went on, increasing emphasis was given to this matter, if we may judge by the increasing frequency with which the state assumed financial responsibility. The existence of special state aid laws for general high school purposes in 23 states, many of which have been passed in very recent years, indicates that its importance is by no means diminishing. Such questions as the following need, therefore, to be answered so far as is possible at the present time: To what extent is equalization, as indicated by present laws and tendencies, desirable? What specific methods for equalizing high school burdens are now being used and how do these compare in effectiveness? What is the relative importance of the county and of the state in this work? What does this analysis of the present situation school purposes, but there is no information as to how long this has been possible. See *School Laws of Colorado, 1915*, section 238 and notes.

²¹ High schools may share in the general state school fund, but there is no information as to how long this has been the case.

²² In this year the maintenance of high schools by public funds was legalized.

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indicate as to future tendencies and ideals concerning equalization? These and related questions are discussed in Chapters II, III, IV, and V.

2. In most states we find that the giving of state money to the local district has been, and is now to a much greater degree, contingent upon the district's meeting certain educational standards. Such standards may be set up and enforced where financial support is involved when this might otherwise not be possible. It is, therefore, worth while to inquire to what extent high school finance laws have played a part in the setting of state standards. In this connection it will be shown how methods of high school support must provide for the protection of the elementary school more than has been done in the past; how they may stimulate the expansion of high schools; and how they should lead to more effective regulations concerning the establishment of high schools in a state. Chapters VI and VII are devoted to these problems.

3. It is a well-known fact that a large proportion of our population does not live in communities large enough or wealthy enough to maintain standard high schools. This condition has led to a broader conception of free high school privileges, so that these questions are extremely vital: What are the different states now doing to meet this situation? What is the comparative effectiveness of present methods? What may be expected of the future in regard to ideals and methods of giving really free secondary school privileges? These are considered in Chapter VIII.

4. High school finance laws seem frequently to have been enacted as supplementary legislation without proper regard for their connection with other laws or their effect upon the school system as a unit. There

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are special aid laws for normal training, for agriculture, for manual training and home economics, for libraries and laboratories. Special aid for general high school purposes is taken sometimes from the general school funds, sometimes from a special high school tax, sometimes from a special appropriation, etc. Sometimes these funds guarantee to the school the amount intended by the law; frequently they do not. What is the present status of sources and of forms of state high school aid? What effect upon the development of individual schools and of a unified public school system in a state do these sources and forms have? What conclusion may be drawn as to the forms of high school finance that should be developed? These problems are discussed in Chapters IX and X.

In this investigation two general aims have been kept in mind: (1) to interpret in the light of history and of present practices and tendencies, ideal modes of procedure, that are attainable, for the maintenance of high schools; (2) since these ideals cannot be attained quickly by most states, to analyze various modes of procedure now in use and to measure these modes by as objective criteria as can now be devised, in order to indicate those that are most effective.

D. CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING LAWS

The evaluation of a number of laws, such as this study undertakes, is a complex and difficult matter. In state finance laws two phases stand out above all others: (1) the degree to which these laws equalize the burdens and the opportunities of education among the communities of the state; and (2) the degree to which these laws stimulate the communities to improve their educational facilities. In neither case do we have def-

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inite and uniform criteria by which to measure the degree to which a law accomplishes its purpose. In equalizing school burdens, states have used a variety of methods for apportioning the state school funds — the number of pupils of school age in the community, the average daily attendance, the number of teachers, etc. While it has been clearly shown that some of these methods are superior to others, none have been accepted as a true measure of need.³³ The writer has, therefore, adopted as a standard by which to measure both the equalizing and the stimulating value of a law two factors that seem to be more fundamental in getting at the elements in the situation than have the factors ordinarily employed, and more constant in giving a uniform comparison under different conditions.

One of these factors is the cost of maintaining schools. If the schools in one community cost \$5000 and those in another cost \$8000, the second community will, other conditions being equal, find school support the more burdensome. The second factor employed is the wealth of the community. It is obvious that, other conditions being equal, the community with a wealth of \$1,000,000 will not need to give such a large percentage of its wealth for the support of schools as will the community with a wealth of only \$500,000. As a matter of fact, however, we know that conditions are not equal; that there are great variations in both cost of schools and in wealth among the different communities of a state. However, by combining these two factors we may secure an index (the tax rate) of the

³³ Cubberley, Ellwood P., *School Funds and Their Apportionment*. See especially pages 250-253.

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energy expended in any community or number of communities.

But there are difficulties in applying such a standard to the evaluation of finance laws. In the first place, we must define the conditions before we can be certain that the tax rate is a real index of the energy two communities are expending for schools. Two towns may each have a school tax of 25 mills, but in one town there may be only a mediocre elementary school with a single high school teacher doing two years of work, while in the other there is a superior elementary school and an accredited high school with three teachers and proper library and laboratory equipment. In order to get a basis for accurate comparison in using the two factors selected as criteria, the first must be modified to say that it shall be not the cost of maintaining schools but the cost of maintaining such schools as will *just satisfy the minimum standards of the state* in regard to building, equipment, library, grounds, number and qualification of teachers, working hours, or whatever the state may deem desirable. By doing this we have a definite basis for comparing costs.

While practically all states have set more or less definite standards for high schools, we seldom find a statement of costs for maintaining schools of minimum standard. Hence in this study it has been necessary, in comparing schools, to take those belonging to the same class or those having about the same number of teachers, and to consider that these are of approximately the same standard.

In using the second factor — the wealth of the community — there is another difficulty. This is the fact that at present in many states property valuations are

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not equalized among the various sections. In one community property may be assessed at its real value; in another at a rate considerably below its real value. In spite of this difficulty we have adopted it as a factor in evaluating high school finance laws because we believe that ultimately to make this a just and accurate factor in measuring school needs and effort is a realizable and necessary ideal. (1) In making comparisons of what their communities are doing for any public work, people frequently, perhaps generally, use the tax rate as the basis for comparison, indicating how fundamental the tax rate is considered. (2) In some states valuations are known to be fairly well equalized; in nearly all, if not all, much thought is being given to the matter. While absolute equalization may never be reached, it is reasonably certain that the states will succeed in time in putting on a comparable basis of valuation the property in different sections. (3) The increasing importance of state taxes, due to the multiplication of the activities for which the state is assuming responsibility, will be an ever present stimulus to state equalization boards to do their work in such a way that each community of the state will contribute its just share. (4) An analysis of school finance laws shows a groping toward a method of measuring need and effort that will be more fundamental and more constant than the methods usually employed. In fact, in several states the property valuation is an important factor in the measures now used, and it is probably not without significance that these are, with one exception, among the very newest of the high school finance laws.

While these two factors of cost and wealth have been used in this study as criteria for a general evaluation

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of such laws, it is not intended to convey the idea that every statute which does not use these factors should be condemned. It is quite possible that some of the better laws work more satisfactorily and equitably for present conditions than would laws using these two factors. Therefore, tables given, particularly in Chapter IV, are intended to show existing inequalities under present conditions of costs and valuations rather than to suggest a wholesale condemnation of the laws themselves. That these factors assist one in making a more accurate estimate of the present situation and a more reliable forecast of future developments than do the factors that have ordinarily been used will be demonstrated from time to time.

CHAPTER TWO

SUPPORT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION WITHOUT SPECIAL STATE AID

A. GENERAL METHODS OF HIGH SCHOOL SUPPORT

AN analysis of the various means now employed for financing secondary education shows that there are five general methods¹ in use: (1) dependence entirely on local funds; (2) dependence on local funds supplemented by participation in the general school funds of the state after they are distributed to the various local units; (3) dependence on local and general state funds supplemented by special state aid for general high school purposes; (4) dependence on any of the preceding sources supplemented by participation in county school funds, either general or special; and (5) dependence on any of the preceding sources supplemented by special state aid for such specific high school purposes as free tuition, libraries, and manual training, agricultural, or normal training courses.

This chapter will consider the first two of these general methods.

B. THE GENERAL SCHOOL FUNDS

The general school revenues of the state are derived from three main sources: (1) permanent funds whose income only is used for schools; (2) state taxes; (3) state appropriations. The permanent funds have been

¹ Throughout this study it should be remembered that these methods are not mutually exclusive. Laws relating to high school support are so lacking in uniformity that an analysis of the states into groups employing methods that are mutually exclusive would be impossible. However, this classification enables us to make an evaluation of the educational principles involved.

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created by and supplemented from a variety of sources, the most important of which are: United States grants to the state of land and money; state grants of land and money; fines; dog, liquor, and gambling licenses; escheats; gifts.² The sources of these permanent funds vary from state to state. The income likewise varies, ranging from nothing in Pennsylvania in 1912-13 to \$2,555,257 in Texas in the same year.³ School taxes are levied in all except a few states. The rate levied and the amount realized differs from state to state. Most states also make frequent appropriations for current support of schools.

C. TWO GENERAL METHODS COMPARED

As indicated by Table 1, in the last chapter, 23 states have special aid laws for general high school purposes. Of these 23 states there are a few in which the general state school funds may not be used for high schools, though in most of these states it is possible to do so. Of the other 25 states there are, according to information at hand, 1 in which the general school funds are limited for use to the elementary schools; 1 in which the situation is doubtful; 1 about which we have no information; and 22 in which the community's share may be used for high school purposes also if the local school authorities so desire. In some of the states permitting the use of the general state school funds for high school purposes, high schools maintained by units of organization larger than the district may not participate in the state funds.

² For a complete discussion see Swift, *A History of Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905*, Chapters 3 and 4.

³ *Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1914*, Vol. II, p. 17.

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Such, for example, is the case in the county high schools of Montana, Nevada, and Oklahoma, and in the township high schools of Illinois.⁴ In most, if not in all, cases this is due to the fact that state funds are distributed to elementary school districts, so that if the money were given both to these districts and to the high school districts as composed of elementary school districts, such school units would receive twice the amount to which they would be entitled.

Are high school burdens equalized when the local community is compelled to maintain its high school without assistance? Tables 2 and 3 answer this question for township high schools in Illinois. Table 2 gives information concerning certain high schools accredited to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, while Table 3 gives similar information concerning schools accredited to the University of Illinois but not accredited to the North Central Association. In Table 2 the percentage of the average rate which different communities must levy to maintain standard schools varies from 78 to 169. In Table 3 it varies from 37 to 225.

TABLE 2 4

School	Rate per \$100	Deviation from average rate	Percentage of average rate
Bloom	1.00	+ .12	114
J. Sterling Morgan..	1.00	+ .12	114
De Kalb	.80	— .08	91
Deerfield	.77	— .11	88
Joliet	1.27	+ .39	144
New Trier	1.49	+ .61	169
La Salle-Peru	.92	+ .04	105
Oak Park	1.44	+ .56	164
Pontiac	.69	— .19	78
Princeton	.72	— .16	82

Average for all North Central township schools, .88.

⁴ From information given by the state departments of education.

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TABLE 3 5

School	Rate per \$100	Deviation from average rate	Percentage of average rate
Assumption	.75	+ .13	121
Benton	1.12	+ .50	181
Flora	1.50	+ .88	225
Georgetown	.33	— .39	37
Marion	.45	— .17	72
Milford	.61	— .01	98
Mt. Pulaski	.40	— .22	65
Palestine	1.50	+ .88	225
Pawnee	1.25	+ .63	202
Newman	1.05	+ .43	169

Average for all township high schools not accredited to North Central, .62.

The causes of such inequalities of tax burden for high schools are easily found. They may be classed as (1) conditions affecting the assessed valuation of the property upon which taxes are levied; and (2) conditions affecting the cost of maintaining minimum standard schools.

In the first class will be found the following circumstances: Property valuations differ among cities, villages, and rural districts because of the *amount* of the property. Valuations vary, too, because of the commercial and civic advantages to be found in a larger place, and because these advantages attract persons of great wealth. Not only will the value of the property of a city, a village, and a rural district differ, but it will vary among units of the same class. Differences among rural districts may be accounted for by variations due to differences in fertility of the soil, presence of timber and minerals, variable rainfall, pres-

⁵ From data given in *University of Illinois Bulletin*, No. 48, pages 21-23. The high schools in each table are considered by the high school visitor of the University of Illinois to be on about the same plane of efficiency as regards number and ability of teachers, equipment, number and effectiveness of curricula offered, etc.

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ence of corporate property such as railroads, and accessibility of the market. It is evident, then, that the school burden will vary with the valuation of the property; the greater the valuation from which the cost of maintaining the schools is to be raised, the smaller will be the tax rate to raise a given amount and the lighter will be the burden.⁶

In the second set of conditions — those affecting the cost of maintaining minimum standard schools — may be mentioned the number of pupils to be educated and the distribution of these pupils in the grades so that the number of teachers required will vary from place to place. It is evident that, in two towns or cities having approximately the same assessed valuation, the burden for schools will be very different if it costs more to maintain minimum standard schools in one than it does in the other.

These are the chief causes for the inequalities in the school burden shown in the above tables. To equalize these burdens, some provision must be made so that the communities that are most able to maintain high schools may assist those that are less able to do so and yet should offer such advantages. This is done by providing funds belonging to or raised by all communities, to be distributed to those that are in need of assistance. These funds may be township, county, or

⁶ A good discussion of this, with many illustrations, may be found in *28th Biennial Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, 1908-10*, pages 493-499. The following is an illustration from this article: "In Morgan County last year one rate was below 25 cents; 14 were between 26 and 50 cents; 26 between 51 and 75 cents; 33 between 76 and \$1.00; 18 between \$1.01 and \$1.25; 10 between \$1.26 and \$1.50; 4 between \$1.51 and \$1.75; 8 between \$1.76 and \$2.00; 2 between \$2.01 and \$2.25; and 1 between \$2.26 and \$2.50. The average was 98 cents."

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state; the larger the unit for this purpose, the greater the chances for complete equalization.

To depend entirely on local funds for the support of the high school does not, of course, provide for such equalization funds. Each community must provide its high school education entirely through its own efforts. While the states employing this method have equalization funds, these funds may not be used for the support of the high school, or at least of certain types of high schools. It is obvious that this method of financing secondary education works an injustice to those communities in which economic conditions are less favorable than are the conditions in most communities. The citizen in the rural or village community is performing a service to his state of fully as great importance as is the man in the city. Yet, in spite of the fact that this rural citizen, through desire or force of circumstances, lives under pioneer or semi-pioneer conditions (relatively speaking), he is compelled to forfeit educational and other advantages or to secure them at an unusual sacrifice. This the state should neither require nor permit. In educational matters at least it should adopt some plan whereby an adequate training may be secured at a reasonable sacrifice.

Is there an equalization of the high school burden when the local community is permitted to use a part of what it receives from the general state school funds for high school purposes? Table 4 gives data concerning the high school tax rate for certain districts in Montana maintaining accredited high schools. The data are for 1909-10, the latest year for which they are available. It will be seen that there are marked differences in the rates levied. Table 5 gives similar

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TABLE 47

School	Tax rate (in mills)	Deviation from average rate (in mills)	Per cent of average tax
Anaconda	6	- 1.41	80.9
Billings	10	+ 2.59	134.9
Columbus	10	+ 2.50	134.9
Chinook	11	+ 3.59	148.4
Ft. Benton	1.5	- 5.91	20.2
Glasgow	10	+ 2.59	134.9
Great Falls	12	+ 4.59	161.9
Havre	2.5	- 4.91	33.7
Hamilton	7.5	+ .09	101.1
Pony	5	- 2.41	67.5
Virginia City	6	- 1.41	80.9
Average	7.41		

information concerning self-imposed tax rates in ordinary and consolidated districts in Colorado in 1913-14.

Why do we find such differences in rates when the general state funds may be used for the support of high schools? In the first place these state funds are too small to make complete equalization possible. In 1912-13 only 19.03 per cent of the entire revenue for common schools in all states came from permanent funds, rents, and state taxes.⁷ It is quite obvious, then, that when, in general, more than four fifths of the school revenue is raised by the local community, the sum given by the state cannot offset all the great variations in different communities, even though the entire sum received from the state were used for that purpose. At present, however, it is not true that all the state school funds are used for the purpose of equalizing school burdens among the various communities. This

⁷ *11th Biennial Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction of Montana, 1910, page 25.*

⁸ *Report of Commissioner of Education, 1914, Vol. II, page 18.*

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TABLE 59

	Un- der 1 mill	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10	10-11	11 and over	Total
North Central...	..	..	..	2	1	3	9	4	3	1	2	..	25
Other accredited.	..	..	..	4	2	2	2	3	3	1	..	1	18
Non-accredited,	1	..	3	2	2	7	9	5	5	1	3	..	38
four-year	..	..	1	1	..	3	..	1	1	..	..	..	7
Three-year	1	1	2	2	5	6	6	1	1	..	..	1	26
Two-year	1	6	12	4	12	9	2	4	1	..	..	1	52
One-year													

^a *A General Survey of Public High School Education in Colorado*, University of Colorado Bulletin, Vol. XIV, No. 10, page 17.

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has been clearly shown by Cubberley.¹⁰ While some progress has been accomplished along this line since Cubberley's study was made, and while the desirability of using the state funds for this purpose has been more clearly recognized, most states still use factors for distributing state aid that give a very unreliable index of the school needs of different communities.

We must therefore admit that permission to use a part of the district's share of the state school funds for high school purposes does little to equalize better the burdens for secondary education than is the case in those states where such permission is denied. There is one respect, however, in which the use of the general state school funds for high schools is an advance over the method of throwing the entire burden upon the local unit, and that is that the high school is recognized as a part of the state school system. With this legal recognition may come more adequate support, better standards, a stronger feeling of the need for high school training, and other conditions that bring about a higher standard of secondary education for the state. Whether, in these days of the popularity of secondary school training, it has much effect may be questioned. That it did have an effect in the earlier days is reasonably certain. For instance, Cubberley gives it as his opinion that the constitutional provision in California permitting the use of the state school funds for primary and elementary schools only "helped materially to prevent the development of high schools in the state."¹¹

¹⁰ Cubberley, Ellwood P., *School Funds and Their Apportionment*, Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 2.

¹¹ *Proceedings of the High School Conference, 1912*, University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 19, page 11.

CHAPTER THREE

SPECIAL STATE AID FOR GENERAL HIGH SCHOOL PURPOSES

A. NECESSITY FOR SUCH AID

FOUR educational demands have been instrumental in causing certain states to set aside special funds for the assistance of high schools and in determining the nature of the funds thus provided: (1) A larger number of high schools has been needed to provide the more advanced training demanded by our increasingly complex social conditions. In order to encourage communities to develop these high schools, special assistance has frequently been necessary. (2) In some states a larger revenue from the state to be used for public schools has been desired. Special high school aid has been one way of giving this additional revenue. (3) There has been a demand on the part of educational leaders that means for improving the quality of high school training be provided. Some state aid funds have, therefore, been used to secure better teachers, more equipment, and more satisfactory buildings. (4) In some states it has been keenly felt, and in nearly all states having such funds it has been felt to some degree, that the states should aid different communities in different amounts according to the educational needs or the educational efforts of these communities.

It is not now possible to indicate to what extent these different demands have been influential in developing special state high school aid in any state or in modifying from time to time the laws governing the use of this aid. Doubtless there has been a shift of emphasis

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from state to state or from time to time within a single state according as conditions have changed.

Facts from two states will illustrate all four demands. In a recent report the state superintendent of Missouri gives the following table:

TABLE 61

	Average percent- age of mainte- nance spent on	
	Elemen- tary schools	Second- ary schools
In 130 districts having first-class high schools..	75.8	24.2
In 56 districts having second-class high schools	61.1	38.9
In 86 districts having third-class high schools	62.0	38.0
In 259 districts having unclassified high schools	70.5	29.5

In explanation of the table the Report says:

"Although the districts having second- and third-class high schools expend upon them a much larger per cent of the revenues of their cities than do the first-class high schools, yet they are unable to reach first rank. These towns cannot spend more money on their high schools without lessening the efficiency of the elementary work, which should not be done. The same condition prevails in the districts having unclassified high schools. There are over four hundred of the second- and third-class and unclassified high schools. Forty-eight of the fifty-six districts maintaining second-class high schools are now levying the constitutional limit for school purposes; sixty-four of the eighty-six districts maintaining third-class high schools are also levying the limit; and 150 of the two hundred and sixty-eight districts having unclassified high schools are levying the limit.

"Thus a total of 262 districts are doing all that they can under our present laws and constitution. Occasionally one

164th Missouri Report of Public Schools, 1912, pages 221, 222.

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of these hard-pressed districts ignores constitutional and statutory limits and levies illegal tax rates in order to maintain its school. The boys and girls of these 262 towns are as worthy of high school training as the boys and girls of wealthier communities. They are certainly as deserving as the boys and girls of other states."

Two reasons are then pointed out why the state should come to the assistance of these communities: (1) Communities that maintain high schools of a grade lower than first furnish the secondary school training to the majority of country boys and girls, who, as a consequence, are deprived of the best sort of high school facilities; (2) the state did not realize the need for secondary education when the present constitutional tax limits were set.

Data given in a recent Idaho Report emphasize the need of a better distribution of the burden for school support. The following table shows some striking differences in valuations of districts maintaining high schools:

TABLE 7 2

	Average	Highest	Lowest
Four-year schools —			
With over 90 teachers (1)....	\$25,992,676		
With 7 to 90 teachers (13)...	4,167,467	\$8,331,890	\$2,200,000
With 4 to 6 teachers (21)....	1,450,839	2,738,073	432,255
With 3 teachers or less (25)...	784,986	2,377,245	227,863
Three-year schools (14).....	557,304	1,577,529	164,147
Two-year schools (11).....	518,190	1,051,879	239,646
One-year schools (17)	447,551	1,012,273	130,273
All schools reported (102).....	1,484,046	25,992,676	130,273

² 1st Biennial Report of State Board of Education, Idaho, 1913-14, page 42.

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Continuing, the same section of the Report says:

"Another comparison may be made, that is of districts with less than \$500,000 valuation; of such districts the following number support high schools:

Four-year schools	11
Three-year schools	7
Two-year schools	7
One-year schools	11
Total	36

Yet many districts with more than this valuation maintain no high school work; for example, in Canyon County, 5; in Bannock County, 6; in Bear Lake, 4; in Clearwater, 10. This is another example of the failure of the present system to distribute the burden of school support properly. This can be remedied largely by larger county and state school support."

B. EXPLANATION OF TERMS

The term "special state aid for high schools" is used ordinarily to refer to any aid given by the state specifically for high school purposes. The term "special" indicates that this aid is differentiated from those general or regular state school funds raised by the state for general school purposes. The term "for high schools" is, of course, to distinguish this assistance from the special aid granted in some states for elementary schools.

According to current usage, special state aid for high schools may mean any or all of four different kinds of aid: that granted for (1) general high school purposes; (2) high school libraries and laboratories; (3) the extension of free high school privileges to pupils not residing in a high school district; (4) such special high school courses as agriculture, normal training and manual training. Now, it is evident that

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each of these four forms of aid has a very different purpose, so that the bare statement that a state has special state aid for high schools may be misleading.

In view, then, of the various meanings that may be given to the term, it is desirable that some differentiation be made. The simplest method that will make the distinctions clear will be the best. This study will, therefore, differentiate the terms on the basis of the purpose for which the aid is given. "Special state aid for general high school purposes" or merely "special state aid for high schools" will refer to the first type of aid — that given for general high school purposes. "Special state aid for high school libraries and laboratories," "for normal training in high schools," "for free high school tuition," "for agricultural courses," etc., will refer each to the kind of aid used for the purpose expressed.

C. STATUS OF THIS METHOD

Up to the end of the legislative sessions of 1915 and 1916, 23 states had adopted laws for special state aid for general high school purposes. The more important features of these laws are given in the following brief statements:

<i>Alabama</i>	\$3000 for each county high school when certain conditions in regard to building, grounds, and equipment are met. ^a
<i>California</i>	\$15 is levied for each high school pupil in average daily attendance. Two thirds of the total revenue for the state is distributed on the basis of average daily attendance. The other one third is divided equally among the approved

^a *General School Laws of Alabama, 1915*, section 1862.

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high schools of the state. This latter basis gave about \$871 to each school in 1914.⁴

<i>Idaho</i>	3 per cent of the entire state and county school fund, or as much of this as is needed, is set aside for rural high schools, not more than \$200 being given for each teacher in such high schools. ⁵
<i>Louisiana</i>	\$50,000 appropriated for 1916-17 to be apportioned equally among the approved high schools. ⁶
<i>Maine</i>	Two thirds of the amount spent for instruction, but not over \$500 to each school. No high school is to be aided unless the appropriation and expenditure of the town for such school "has been exclusive of the amounts required by law for common school purposes." ⁷
<i>Maryland</i>	To each high school of the first grade \$600 for the principal, \$300 for each of the first three assistants in the high school, \$400 for each of two special teachers giving at least two fifths of their time to the high school, and \$100 for each additional grade teacher, but not more than \$2500 in all. To each school of the second class, \$600 for the principal, \$400 for one assistant in the

⁴ *School Law of California, 1915, sections 1760-1763.* The amount per school is estimated from data given on pages 9 and 42 of *California Biennial School Report, 1913-14.*

⁵ *School Laws of Idaho, 1915, section 67.*

⁶ *Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1916, page 140, and Requirements for State Approval of Louisiana High Schools, 1913, page 7.*

⁷ *Laws of Maine Relating to Public Schools, 1915, sections 73, 74.*

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high school, \$400 for an instructor of special subjects.⁸

Massachusetts

\$500 for each town of less than 500 families maintaining an approved high school, providing that the average valuation per pupil of the town is not above the average for the state.⁹

Minnesota

\$1800 for each approved high school; \$250 for each high school teacher in a graded school. "Districts whose tax levy for maintenance of schools exceeds 20 mills in any year may receive in addition to other aid one third of the amount raised in excess of that received from the 20-mill levy, with a maximum of \$2500 to each high school . . ." ¹⁰

Missouri

\$800 to high schools in districts with a valuation under \$300,000; \$600 if valuation is \$300,000 and less than \$400,000; \$400 if valuation is \$400,000 and less than \$600,000; \$200 if valuation is \$600,000 or more; but no school is to be aided unless it is levying the maximum rate for maintenance (100 cents) provided by law. No school may receive more than half the amount of teachers' salaries the previous year, and a school receiving any other form of special high school aid may not receive any from this fund. Amount for this purpose cannot be over 5 per cent of total school fund.¹¹

⁸ *Public School Laws of Maryland, 1916*, section 128.

⁹ *Revised Laws Relating to Public Instruction of Massachusetts, 1915*, pages 17, 18.

¹⁰ *Laws of Minnesota Relating to the Public School System, 1916*, sections 190, 191, 196.

¹¹ *Revised School Laws of Missouri, 1913*, pages 94-96.

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<i>New Jersey</i>	\$600 for each supervising principal or city superintendent of schools; \$500 for each assistant supervisor and assistant superintendent; \$400 for each teacher in a four-year school; \$300 for each teacher in a three-year school; \$200 for each teacher in a high school department of less than three years; \$80 for each temporary teacher employed for at least four months. The remainder of the school fund to be distributed to the different districts on the basis of total days' attendance of pupils. ¹²
<i>New York</i>	\$100 for each high school, and, after appropriations are made for books and apparatus and tuition, the remainder of the "Literature Fund" is distributed on the basis of attendance. ¹³
<i>North Carolina</i>	\$200-\$600 for each high school, distributed according to: (1) average daily attendance over 20; (2) number of full-time teachers employed; (3) grade and character of work done. Local community and county must each contribute an amount equal to that granted by state. Except in certain cases towns with over 1200 population are not aided. ¹⁴
<i>North Dakota</i>	\$800 for each four-year, \$500 for each three-year, \$300 for each two-year high school; \$200 for each school doing one year of high school work where two or more teachers are employed. ¹⁵

¹² *New Jersey School Law, 1914*, section 293.

¹³ *Education Law of New York, 1914*, paragraph 493.

¹⁴ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, pages 50-53.

¹⁵ *General School Laws of North Dakota, 1915*, section 1433.

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<i>Pennsylvania</i>	A sum not exceeding \$800 for each first-class, \$600 for each second-class, and \$400 for each third-class high school. ¹⁶
<i>Rhode Island</i>	\$25 for each pupil in average daily attendance for the first 25 pupils; \$15 for each pupil in average daily attendance for the second 25 pupils. ¹⁷
<i>South Carolina</i>	Districts having at least two high school teachers, an enrollment of not less than 25 high school pupils, and levying a special tax of not less than 4 mills are entitled to assistance. Not more than \$500 may be given a high school with two teachers, not more than \$600 to one with three teachers, not more than \$700 to one with four or more teachers. Additional appropriations may be made for the attendance of high school pupils from outside the high school territory and for meritorious work in agriculture, manual training, and domestic science. ¹⁸
<i>Tennessee</i>	County high schools are assisted in proportion to the amount of money received from other sources and expended annually for the payment of teachers' salaries and incidentals, but not more than one third of the amount received from other sources and expended for maintenance. No county may receive more than one fiftieth of the whole amount. If money remains in the high school fund after the maximum allowed each

¹⁶ *School Laws of Pennsylvania, 1915*, section 1713.

¹⁷ *Laws of Rhode Island Relating to Education, 1910*, pages 97, 98.

¹⁸ *General School Law of South Carolina, 1916*, sections 1812d-1812i.

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	school has been distributed, high schools may receive additional aid for industrial work. If a county levies the maximum tax allowed by law, and is unable to raise \$2000, enough may be given by the state to insure a fund of \$2000. ¹⁹
<i>Utah</i>	State high school tax of two tenths of 1 mill distributed according to attendance. ²⁰
<i>Vermont</i>	Towns having a grand list of \$5000 or less receive \$20 per pupil per school year; more than \$5000 and not more than \$7000, \$15 per pupil; \$7000 and not more than \$10,000, \$10 per pupil; more than \$10,000 and not more than \$15,000, \$5; more than \$15,000, no rebate. ²¹
<i>Virginia</i>	\$250-\$400 for each high school, according to the amount raised from local sources. ²²
<i>Washington</i>	\$100 for each grade above the grammar grades having an average daily attendance of at least four pupils, and one and one half times the apportionment per pupil from regular school funds. ²³
<i>West Virginia</i>	\$800 for each first-class, \$600 for each second-class, \$400 for each third-class high school. ²⁴

¹⁹ *Public School Laws of Tennessee, 1913*, pages 72-74.

²⁰ *School Law of Utah, 1915*, pages 41-44.

²¹ *Vermont School Laws, 1915*, page 42. The term "grand list" means 1 per cent of the entire property list, plus a poll list of \$2 per poll.

²² *Virginia School Laws, 1915*, section 94.

²³ *Code of Public Instruction of Washington, 1913*, sections 249, 259.

²⁴ *School Law of West Virginia, 1915*, page 26.

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Wisconsin

One half cost of instruction, over and above the amount required by law to be expended for common school purposes, not to exceed \$500 to a district high school; \$900 to a town or union high school with a principal and one assistant; \$1200 to a town or union high school with a principal and two assistants; \$1500 to a town or union high school with a principal and three or more assistants.²⁵ High schools of the state, not exceeding 15 in number, may establish winter terms equal in length to one half the length of the regular course. Two thirds of the salaries for this teaching is paid by the state from a special appropriation made for that purpose.²⁶

D. A GENERAL EVALUATION

Special state aid for general high school purposes has unquestionably done much to extend and improve the facilities for secondary school training in those states where it has been employed. This opinion has been expressed time and again by those officials in a position to know.²⁷ When, however, we attempt to show in quantitative terms the extent to which develop-

²⁵ *Laws of Wisconsin Relating to Common Schools, 1915*, section 496.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, section 494 a.

²⁷ See for example, *Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Schools, West Virginia, 1912-14*, page 12; *22d Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Arkansas, 1911-12*, pages 108-110; *Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Louisiana, 1909-11*, page 54; *44th Annual Report of State Superintendent of Education, South Carolina, 1912*, page 24; *Annual Report, New York Education Department, 1916*, pages 247-249. According to one author the discontinuance of high school aid in Maine for one year, 1879, led to a discontinuance of

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ment has been due to state aid, we find it almost impossible to do so. High schools have increased in number in every state at a remarkable rate, and the quality of the work everywhere has been so greatly improved that it is difficult to determine just how much of this development has been due to state aid and how much to the insistence of the people on a better grade of secondary school.

More than either of the methods already presented, the plan of supporting secondary education by local and general school funds supplemented by special state aid for general school purposes has made the state realize the desirability and the necessity of extending high school privileges. When the locality is compelled to bear the whole burden of the high school while assistance is given by the state for elementary education, the entire state is led to feel that a high school education is more or less of a luxury, with the result that it will, in general, be provided only by those communities that can do so without much sacrifice. Much the same can be said of the method of permitting the use of a part of the general state funds for high school purposes. In either case this high school training is furnished only by an unusual effort on the part of the locality in raising the funds, or by making a poorer elementary school through diverting funds from it to the high school. But, when the state adopts the policy of setting aside a certain part of the state revenue for the development of high schools, then the people of the state are made to realize that a high school education is *desirable*, and by a proper emphasis of this policy

nearly every high school that had been established in the rural communities. See Jones, *State Aid to Secondary Schools*, page 109.

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they may be made to realize that such an education is *necessary*.

Another advantage in this method is that it has tended to increase the effort of the state for school purposes. When special state aid for general high school purposes has been adopted, it has generally been in addition to, and not at the expense of, the general state school funds. That is, whatever amount is appropriated for high schools is taken from the general revenues of the state and not from those revenues that make the general state school funds. There are, however, some exceptions to this which will be discussed in a later chapter.

Again, this method, better than either of the others, enables the state to set definite minimum standards for schools. That a few states have developed fairly definite standards without this method of support, or that a few states using it have not developed such standards, does not disprove the general truth of the statement. In states where the feeling is strong for local control of education it might be disputed whether a state which did not provide, as a state, for its schools would have a legal right to require those schools to reach a minimum standard. Even had it the legal right to do so, it might be impossible for the state to enforce such standards. As will be shown in Chapter VI, the state requirements for receiving aid from the general school fund have been so low that little has been accomplished in the matter of setting standards, and it is doubtful if the states could now retrieve the fault by means of the regular state school funds as they are now apportioned. When, however, the state adopts a new form of financial assistance, such as special state aid for general high school purposes, especially if the as-

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sistance be large, definite standards can easily be set. A state giving such aid or contemplating doing so should recognize that the earlier the setting of such standards is begun the less difficulty will it encounter in public opinion.

Not only will special state aid for general high school purposes aid in developing high school standards, but it will react to the standardizing of elementary education. In order that the high school may reach a required standard, it must be based upon a standard elementary school. Hence, the standardizing of the high school has naturally led, in many states, to a more or less definite standardizing of the elementary school.

CHAPTER FOUR

SPECIAL STATE AID FOR GENERAL HIGH SCHOOL PURPOSES (*Continued*)

SOME of the states that first adopted a form of special state assistance for general high school purposes apparently had in mind the desirability of aiding different communities according to their educational needs.¹ Thus, the first high school aid law in Maine, 1873, made much the same provision which is now in existence, that a town maintaining a high school "shall be entitled to receive from the state one half the amount actually expended for instruction in said school, not however exceeding \$500 from the state to any one town; provided, that no town shall be entitled to such state aid unless the appropriation and expenditure for such school on the part of said town has been exclusive of the amounts required by law to be expended for common purposes."² A somewhat similar law was passed in Wisconsin in 1875.³ Early in the nineteenth century Massachusetts required towns having a population of 500 families or householders to provide secondary school privileges, a law which has in general been in force since that time.⁴ In 1895 towns were permitted to vote money for the payment of the tuition of high school pupils in academies, and the state agreed to reimburse towns of less than \$500,000 valuation for all amounts expended by them for

¹ This term means the *relative*, not the actual, needs of the community. See page 143.

² *Laws of Maine, 1873*, Chapter 124.

³ *Laws of Wisconsin, 1875*, Chapter 323.

⁴ Jones, David Rhys, *State Aid to Secondary Schools*, pages 119-114; 73. This law followed a similar one dating back to 1647.

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tuition in and transportation to approved high schools. In 1902 a town having a per-pupil valuation not higher than the per-pupil valuation for the entire state was entitled to \$300 a year to assist in maintaining an accredited high school. More detailed provision was also made for granting state assistance for the payment of tuition on the basis of the valuation of the community.

Other states seem not to have seen so clearly the desirability of aiding according to need. In 1878 Minnesota gave each approved high school \$400.⁵ North Dakota, in 1899, gave \$175 to each four-year, \$140 to each three-year, and \$100 to each two-year high school.⁶ In 1895 Pennsylvania gave \$800, \$600, and \$400 to each of three classes of high schools maintained by joint districts, townships, or joint townships.⁷ In the cases of North Dakota and Pennsylvania some recognition of educational need was made, since first-class schools were given more than schools of lower classes, but none of the three states had a requirement concerning the effort a community must make before receiving this assistance.

Twenty-three states now (1916) have special state aid for general high school purposes. In these states various degrees of attention have been given to the problem of assisting according to educational need, and, where serious attention has been given to it, various methods have been employed in attempting to solve the problem. It will, therefore, be worth while to evaluate, by as objective and accurate standards as can be

⁵ Jones, pages 132-134.

⁶ *8th Annual Report of Inspector of High Schools, 1915*, page 42.

⁷ Snyder, Edwin R., *The Legal Status of Rural High Schools in the United States*, page 58.

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devised at this time, the different types of method now used.

So far as possible the specific provisions found in different types of laws will also be evaluated. In this chapter, only those specific provisions will be considered that bear upon the question of the equalization of educational burdens, leaving to later chapters the discussion of the effect of types of laws and of specific provisions of those laws upon the development of an effective secondary school system in a state.

A. THE FIRST STEP IN EQUALIZATION

If a state wishes to make certain that the small sum which it feels able to set aside for high school purposes is used to the best advantage in aiding communities, that state must first determine the basis upon which it will make the distinction between schools that it should aid and those it should not aid. Five ways are now employed for making this distinction: (1) The 500-family basis; (2) the population basis; (3) the grand-list basis; (4) the average-valuation-per-pupil basis; (5) the tax-rate basis.

1. *The 500-Family Basis*

This method has, with the exception of a few years, been employed in Massachusetts since 1827—three quarters of a century before special high school aid was granted—for the purpose of determining the towns that must maintain secondary schools. In modified form the law dates back as early as 1647.⁸ The present law requires each town of 500 or more

⁸ For a brief statement of the history of this law see *Report of Board of Education of Massachusetts, 1897-8*, pages 366-368.

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families or householders to maintain a four-year high school without special assistance from the state.⁹

Does the 500-family basis permit many towns not in need of assistance, compared with all towns in the state, to receive aid? In 1913-14, 47 towns received state aid. In that year the rate raised by local taxation on the total state valuation and expended for the support of public schools was \$4.54 per \$1000.¹⁰ Of the 47 towns receiving aid all but 3, Lunenburg (\$4.43), Medfield (\$2.96), and Tisbury (\$3.36), had a rate higher than the state rate¹¹ and should therefore be entitled to assistance. One must conclude, therefore, that the law worked fairly well in Massachusetts in 1913-14 so far as it concerned the aiding only of towns relatively in need.

Does the law exclude many towns relatively in need of assistance? Of the 47 towns receiving aid none had, in 1913-14, over 6½ teachers; all but 5 had between 2 and 4 teachers.¹² There were, in the same year, 23 towns of 500 or more families having from 2 to 4 teachers. Of these 23 towns only 2, Marshfield (\$3.53) and Duxbury (\$2.65), had a rate below the state rate of \$4.54,¹³ a situation which indicates that the 500-family basis did eliminate many towns that were entitled to assistance. Table 8 is of interest in this connection.

⁹ *Revised Laws Relating to Public Instruction, Massachusetts, 1915*, page 15.

¹⁰ *78th Annual Report of Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1913-14*, page 154.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pages 148; cix-cxii.

¹² *Ibid.*, pages xviii-xcix. A part-time teacher is arbitrarily counted as a half-time teacher.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pages xxxviii-xcvi; cix-cxii.

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TABLE 8 14

These towns received state aid				These towns, having over 500 families, did not receive state aid			
Town	Cost of high school	No. teachers	Rate	Town	Cost of high school	No. teachers	Rate
Ashby	\$1483	2	\$7.16	Dudley	\$2079	2	\$8.99
Barnardston	1822	2	4.60	Sutton	1879	2	5.60
Conway	1640	2	5.35	Westport	1315	2	6.60
Edgartown	1804	2	4.83				
Menden	1875	2	5.87				
Average	1704	..	5.56		1757	..	7.06
Avon	2874	3	7.63	Upton	2681	3	5.94
Bolton	1547	3	7.56	Holliston	2816	3	6.95
Charlemont	2682	3	8.12	Medway	2707	3	6.01
Lunenburg	2789	3	4.43	Brookfield	2155	3	7.02
Sandwich	3417	3	6.09	Belchertown ..	2796	3	8.17
Average	2661	.	6.76		2631	..	6.81
Ashfield	2335	4	5.24	Lee	4976	4	6.24
Chester	2851	4	7.32	Oxford	4435	4	8.68
Petersham	2697	4	6.59	Barre	5598	4	6.61
Plainville	3103	4	7.27	Townsend	3091	4	6.14
West Boylston...	3255	4	10.53				
Average	2848	..	7.39		4525	..	6.92

¹⁴ Data from 78th Annual Report of Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1913-14, pages 154; xxxviii-xxvii; cix-xxii. In the two-teacher group there were only three towns and in the four-teacher group only four towns having over 500 families.

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The parallel columns give information concerning towns receiving assistance and towns not receiving assistance because they had over 500 families. The towns are grouped into those having 2 teachers, 3 teachers, and 4 teachers, so that the comparison may be as accurate as possible. Except in the 4-teacher group one fails to see why those in the first column were any more entitled to aid than those in the second column. This is true whether one compares costs and rates in individual schools or the averages for the different groups. Probably it would be true that, as the comparison of schools with a larger number of teachers is continued, those having over 500 families would be found to be in less need of state assistance.

Though the available facts show that the 500-family method does not permit many towns to receive aid that are not entitled to it, the fact that there are so many excluded by this law that are entitled to it would indicate that the method is not a completely satisfactory one. An analysis of the 500-family basis of eliminating schools fails to reveal any reason for believing that it should work with justice in any except a very general way. The notion leading to the enactment of the law probably was that a town with 500 families, being larger than many towns in the state, should have more wealth with which to maintain a secondary school. In general it is true that the cities have the most wealth and the finest schools in the state, and yet levy rates for schools that are comparatively low.¹⁵ Boston, for instance, found it necessary in 1912-13 to levy a rate of only \$3.45 to maintain its splendid school system.

¹⁵ Examine the tax rates for cities given in the Massachusetts report cited, page cxv, and compare these rates with those of towns given in the following pages.

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It does not follow, however, that one can select an arbitrary number of families and expect this to be a correct index of the educational needs of a community. Especially does this become true as conditions demand more and more a refinement of methods for determining need.

2. *The Population Basis*

This method is similar to the family basis, except that here every person is counted instead of counting only the number of families. North Carolina does not permit towns of more than 1200 inhabitants to benefit by the high school aid act unless the high school in such a town has been selected by the County Board of Education to provide free tuition to pupils of high school age and to public teachers of the county, and unless such arrangement has been approved by the State Board of Education.¹⁶ In 1913-14 there were 82 high schools excluded on the basis of population; 6 others would have been excluded except that they were affording free tuition to the counties in which they are located. There were 209 rural high schools receiving aid.¹⁷ Until 1916 the South Carolina high school aid law set the population limit for towns receiving assistance at 2500.¹⁸ In addition to this a special tax of at least 2 mills had to be levied. Now there is no population restriction, and a special tax of at least 4 mills must be levied.¹⁹

Although there are no data available by which the

¹⁶ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, page 51, section 6.

¹⁷ *7th Annual Report of State Inspector of High Schools, 1914*, pages 42-48, 49, 52, 53.

¹⁸ *General School Law of South Carolina, 1912*, section 1825.

¹⁹ *General School Law of South Carolina, 1916*, sections 1812a-1812j.

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effectiveness of the population basis in eliminating towns not in relative need may be measured, it is likely that the results are not much more fair than they have been shown to be in Massachusetts under the 500-family basis. The number of people is no real index of the school costs in a community or of the ability of the community to pay those costs.²⁰

3. *The Grand-List Basis*

This is employed in Vermont. Under this law, which was adopted in 1915, towns with a grand list of more than \$15,000 receive no aid from the state, while towns with a smaller grand list receive assistance according to the size of the grand list. This grand list, being 1 per cent of the entire property list plus a poll list of \$2.00 per poll, is virtually the property valuation of a community. In 1915, 25 of the 285 towns had a grand list over \$15,000.²¹

Obviously the property valuation of a town would, in general, be a more reliable index of the needs of that town for high school purposes than would be its population or the number of its families. But, while the valuation gives us a definite notion of the ability of a community to maintain schools, it gives no idea of what it costs to maintain minimum standard schools. That the cost of these schools might legitimately differ in

²⁰ In his 1909-10 report, pages 21-23, the high school inspector of South Carolina arraigned most severely the population limit. He presents a table showing that, in 18 towns studied, \$80,917.84 or 41 per cent of the 3-mill constitutional levy went to support schools outside these towns, and yet the communities could not share in the high school appropriation merely because they had a population of more than 2500.

²¹ *Vermont School Report, 1915*, pages 218, 252, 286, 320, 352, 382, 412, 438, 470, 504, 542, 580, 614.

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different places when all are held to the same standard will be conceded; that the cost does actually differ under present conditions may be seen by turning to page 81 and comparing the costs in Missouri communities having approximately the same valuation.

4. *The Valuation-per-Pupil Basis*

This method, used in Massachusetts in connection with the 500-family basis, is a fourth basis employed for eliminating towns not in relative need. By this law all towns of less than 500 families with a valuation per pupil above that of the average for the state (\$8841 in 1913-14) are excluded from sharing in the special aid for high schools.

In 1913-14 there were 15 such towns. Of these only 1, Brewster (\$4.74), had a rate above the state rate. In general the rates for these towns are low, the average being \$3.22, the lowest \$1.03, and the highest \$4.74.²² All these towns, with one exception, maintain standard high schools, as judged by the requirements for teachers adopted by the State Board of Education in 1915 for high schools in towns belonging to superintendency unions. It would appear, then, that elimination on this basis worked with considerable justice in Massachusetts in 1913-14, so far as it concerned refusing aid to towns of less than 500 families having a lower rate than the state average.

It is of interest to know how the valuation-per-pupil basis would work if there were no 500-family restriction in Massachusetts. Of the 23 towns of more than 500 families having from 2 to 4 teachers, we find that in 1913-14 only 3 had a per-pupil valuation above

²² 78th Annual Report of Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1913-14, pages 155; cix-cxii.

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the state average,—Marshfield (\$11,815), Wayland (\$9091), and Duxbury (\$16,518). The per-pupil valuations of the other 20 towns ranged as follows: \$2000-\$2999, 1; \$3000-\$3999, 5; \$4000-\$4999, 7; \$5000-\$5999, 5; \$6000-\$6999, 1.²³ These figures indicate that many of the towns shown on page 45 to be relatively in need of assistance would not have been excluded on the per-pupil-valuation basis as they were on the 500-family basis. Of the 47 towns receiving state aid all have, of course, a per-pupil valuation below that of the state average, and, since it was shown on page 44 that most of these were relatively in need of assistance, the per-pupil-valuation basis would work as well with them as would the 500-family basis. If we compare the rates and the per-pupil valuations of the 33 cities, the 70 towns with more than 5000 population, and the 250 towns with less than 5000 population for the year 1912-13, a year for which the per-pupil valuations are given, we get the table shown on the opposite page.²⁴

If the results of this table are combined, we find that in about 88 per cent of the cases a per-pupil valuation above the state average means a rate below the state rate or that a per-pupil valuation below the state average means a rate above the state rate; while in only about 12 per cent of the cases does a per-pupil valuation above the state average mean a rate above the state rate or a per-pupil valuation below the state average mean a rate below the state rate. This, in short, means that while the per-pupil valuation is not an ab-

²³ *Ibid.*, pages xxxviii-xcvi. The per-pupil valuations are computed from the average membership and valuation data given in these tables.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, pages cxiv-cxlix.

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TABLE 9

I. 33 cities		Percentage of the 33 cities
A. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>above</i> the state average and a rate <i>below</i> the state rate	6	18.2
B. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>above</i> the state average and a rate <i>above</i> the state rate	2	6.1
C. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>below</i> the state average and a rate <i>above</i> the state rate	25	75.7
D. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>below</i> the state average and a rate <i>below</i> the state rate	0	0
II. 70 Towns of over 5000 population		Percentage of the 70 towns
A. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>above</i> the state average and a rate <i>below</i> the state rate	7	10.0
B. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>above</i> the state average and a rate <i>above</i> the state rate	1	1.4
C. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>below</i> the state average and a rate <i>above</i> the state rate	59	84.3
D. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>below</i> the state average and a rate <i>below</i> the state rate	3	4.3
III. 250 towns of less than 500 population		Percentage of the 250 towns
A. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>above</i> the state average and a rate <i>below</i> the state rate	44	17.6
B. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>above</i> the state average and a rate <i>above</i> the state rate	4	1.6
C. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>below</i> the state average and a rate <i>above</i> the state rate	148	59.2
D. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>below</i> the state average and a rate <i>below</i> the state rate	53	21.2
E. Having a per-pupil valuation <i>below</i> the state average and a rate the same as the state rate	1	.4

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solute indication of whether a town should or should not be eliminated from participation in state aid, in 88 cases out of 100 it is a correct index in Massachusetts. In fact, it would appear from the data concerning rates and per-pupil valuations in towns of more than 500 families having from 2 to 4 teachers that elimination from state aid would be much fairer if the 500-family limit did not exist in Massachusetts and the elimination were made entirely on the basis of the valuation per pupil.

If we remember that the two fundamental factors in estimating the relative need of a community are (1) the cost of maintaining minimum standard schools and (2) the wealth against which this cost is to be assessed, we can understand why the per-pupil valuation is a more reliable index of need than any of the three methods previously discussed. The per-pupil valuation gives some indication of the wealth back of each pupil, thus taking into account something of both the fundamental factors in determining need. On the other hand, neither the 500-family basis nor the population basis gives any reliable indication of the wealth in the community or of the cost of maintaining minimum standard schools. The grand-list basis gives an index of the wealth of the community but not of the cost of maintaining minimum standard schools.

5. *The Tax-Rate Basis*

This method is employed in 5 states, though in some of these the law has no practical effect. In Maine the law states that "no town shall receive state aid for the maintenance of a free high school unless its appropriation and expenditure for such school has been exclusive of the amounts required by law for common

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school purposes.”²⁵ The Wisconsin law says that districts maintaining high schools “shall be entitled to receive from the general fund of the state annually one half of the amount actually expended for instruction in its high school during such year over and above the amount required by law to be expended for common school purposes . . .”²⁶ The South Carolina high school statute of 1907 provided that “no aid shall be given any high school unless the district or districts composing the high school territory are levying or shall levy as much as 2 mills special tax, which may be levied as either a common school or a high school tax.”²⁷ In 1916 the rate was raised to 4 mills; this tax is in addition to the required county tax of 3 mills. The Missouri high school law of 1913 requires that before receiving aid a district must show that it has levied for school purposes (teachers and incidental expenses) the maximum levy provided by law.²⁸ In North Carolina it is specified that the local committee of each public high school receiving state aid “shall apportion out of the local school fund raised by special tax, or shall raise by private donation or otherwise, at least as much as the State Board of Education apportions to said high school . . .”²⁹ It may be mentioned in this connection that the new Massachusetts statute for aiding communities for high school transportation is based upon the tax rate levied for school purposes.

While this method of determining the high schools that are not relatively in need of assistance is called

²⁵ *Laws of Maine Relating to Public Schools, 1915*, section 72.

²⁶ *Laws of Wisconsin Relating to Common Schools, 1915*, section 496 (1).

²⁷ *General School Law of South Carolina, 1912*, section 1831.

²⁸ *Revised School Laws of Missouri, 1913*, page 94.

²⁹ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, page 54.

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the "tax rate" method, a uniform and definite tax rate for this purpose is not always set. Thus, in Maine the requirement is that each town must raise and expend annually for the support of common schools not less than 80 cents for each inhabitant.³⁰ The rate necessary to raise this amount will necessarily differ in different communities. In North Carolina the rate that must be levied cannot be definitely stated, since it will depend upon both the amount given by the state and the property valuation of the high school district. In Missouri, however, the rate is definitely known and is uniform throughout the state. The same is true for South Carolina.

To what extent do these different laws actually indicate the communities of a state not in need, comparatively speaking, of state aid for high schools? In North Carolina there are no available facts upon which to base an evaluation of this phase of the law. In South Carolina, in 1915, 76 per cent of the districts of the state, according to information from the state department, levied a special tax ranging from 1 mill to 16 mills. The fact that in 1916 the rate that a high school district must levy to receive state aid was raised from 2 mills to 4 mills would indicate that the former rate had ceased to be a real test of need. In Maine, the requirement has in most communities virtually ceased to be effective, since, according to the state department, "the average for the state would show that the rate actually levied for common school purposes (.0026 in 1916) is much higher than that required by law." According to information from the Wisconsin state department the requirement "is superfluous and has no effect on the state aid for high

³⁰ *Laws of Maine Relating to Public Schools, 1915*, section 16.

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schools." Missouri requires the levying of the maximum rate (100 cents on the \$100) provided by law (for teachers and incidentals), with the result that only those communities can receive assistance that are doing all that the law will permit in the support of schools. The Massachusetts transportation law excludes towns that have a tax rate for schools of less than \$4 per thousand of valuation. The state tax rate in 1913 was \$4.54 per thousand, this rate being the percentage of the total state valuation raised by local taxation for the support of public schools. It is evident, therefore, that the Massachusetts law aims to set as the rate required before aid for transportation may be given by the state, a rate that approximates that actually required for maintaining schools.

B. THE SECOND STEP IN EQUALIZATION

After it has been determined what communities are not in need of high school assistance, relatively speaking, the next step is to adopt some measure for determining to what extent those needing help should be assisted. The many methods now employed for this purpose may be classified under eleven general types: (1) a definite or proportional sum to each high school meeting the conditions of the state law; (2) the amount furnished by the local community; (3) the classification of the high school; (4) the attendance; (5) the attendance and the school; (6) the number of teachers; (7) the number of teachers and the attendance; (8) the cost of high school instruction; (9) the property valuation of the community; (10) the property valuation and the attendance; (11) a combination of various factors.

The very fact that we have so many different

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methods of measuring the amount of aid that should be given to a school is proof that the desirability of having such a measure is conceded. The remainder of this chapter will attempt to compare, so far as is possible with data now available, the results of these general types and of certain important phases of these types.

1. *A Certain Amount to Each High School Meeting the Conditions Set by the State*

This is the method of distribution employed by three states. Alabama grants \$3000 to each county high school which has a suitable site of at least five acres of land and a properly equipped building costing at least \$5000.³¹ In Louisiana the annual appropriation for high schools is divided equally among the approved schools of the state. Massachusetts, after eliminating certain towns as described in the first part of this chapter, allows \$500 to each town maintaining a four-year high school which employs at least two teachers. Any high school maintained by a town required to belong to a superintendency union must meet the standards approved by the State Board of Education.

This method of assistance does not recognize the differences in the ability of communities to maintain minimum standard high schools, since the same amount is granted to each. Table 10, giving facts concerning towns in Massachusetts having three high school teachers each, illustrates this.³²

³¹ For the citations of the state aid laws mentioned in this chapter see the footnotes for each state in Chapter III.

³² It is interesting to note in this connection that the high school inspector of Massachusetts has proposed a new aid law of which the following are the essential features: (1) Eliminate towns of 500 or more families and those having an average valua-

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TABLE 10 ²³

	Valuation	Rate per \$1000 for all public schools	Cost of high school	Amount of state aid	Rate necessary to pay remainder of high school cost
Avon	\$1,079,697	\$7.68	\$2874	\$500	\$2.19
Bolton	678,970	7.66	1547	500	1.54
Charlemont	561,400	8.12	2682	500	3.88
Lunenburg	1,392,764	4.48	2789	500	1.64
Sandwich	1,800,800	6.09	3417	500	2.24
Sterling	1,249,590	4.98	2375	500	1.50
Tisbury	1,807,747	3.36	3074	500	1.42
Westminster	990,900	5.61	2322	500	1.84
State average		4.54			

2. The Amount Raised by the Local Community

The amount raised by the local community, within certain limits, is the basis for aid in Virginia. The state duplicates the amount between \$250 and \$400 raised by the district. The North Carolina law formerly granted from \$250 to \$500, depending upon the amount furnished from local sources.²⁴ In 1915 another basis of distribution was adopted, although it

tion per pupil over the average for the state; (2) eliminate towns having a school tax rate of \$4 per \$1000 valuation or less; (3) aid other towns as follows: (a) when the school rate is more than \$4 but not more than \$5, 30% of the net expenditure for high school instructors; (b) when the rate is more than \$5 but not more than \$6, 40%; (c) when the rate is more than \$6, 50%; (4) but the aid shall not exceed "the product of \$40 by the average number, not exceeding 25 pupils over fourteen years of age, resident in the town and members of that high school, for that school year, increased by the sum obtained by multiplying \$20 by the excess, if any, in the average membership of such pupils, over 25 but not over 75." It is readily seen that such a law considers both needs and abilities of different communities.

²³ Data from *78th Annual Report of Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1913-14*, pages 154, xxxviii-lxxvii, cix-cxli.

²⁴ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1913*, page 96.

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was still required that the local committee apportion from the local school funds raised by special tax or by donation an amount at least equal to that given by the state, and that the county board apportion at least an equal amount from the general county fund. The state may not give less than \$200 or more than \$600.³⁵

Such a law as that in Virginia tends to encourage high schools in small communities and, by setting a maximum amount that may be given to any school, makes certain that the bulk of the state appropriation for this purpose does not go to a few of the larger schools where high schools are liberally supported by local taxation. It is quite evident, however, that the amount a community provides for high school purposes is no index of the needs of the community for those purposes or of its ability to supply those needs.

3. *The Classification of the High School*

This basis of distribution is used in North Dakota, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. The amounts allowed for the different classes of schools are: North Dakota, \$800, \$500, \$300, \$200; Pennsylvania, \$800, \$600, \$400; West Virginia, \$800, \$600, \$400. In North Dakota and Pennsylvania, if the appropriation for high schools is not sufficient to pay the maximum amount allowed by law, the money is prorated to the different schools.

The principle upon which this method is based is that a four-year high school is in greater need of assistance than is a three-year school; that a three-year school is in greater need than a two-year school, etc., because the longer the course the greater will be the cost. There is also included an element of effort, since

³⁵ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, pages 54, 55.

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a community that is willing to exert itself to maintain a first-class school will receive more assistance than the community that will support only a second-class school.

In evaluating this method two important questions must be answered. First, to what extent does this method aid the different schools of the same class according to need? For example, are all four-year schools receiving \$800 in need of state assistance to about the same degree? Second, to what extent do the amounts given to the different classes of schools succeed in helping such schools according to need? For example, does the giving of \$500 to second-class schools aid those schools according to need in about the same degree that \$800 aids first-class schools?

Table 11 gives data from North Dakota high schools throwing light upon both questions. It will be seen that the first question is really the same as that raised on page 56, where the equalization effect of granting

TABLE 11 ³⁶

School	Valuation	Cost of instruction	State aid	Rate necessary to pay remainder of cost
<i>First-class schools</i>				
Bismarck	\$2,059,028	\$9480	\$544	4.3 mills
Botineau	498,655	3690	544	6.3
Cando	730,255	6970	544	8.8
Casselton	734,895	6150	544	7.6
Cavalier	261,167	4510	544	15.2
Average for all (41) first-class schools	908,718	6090	...	8.6
Range for all (41)	195,785—	2870—	...	2.7—
first-class schools	6,787,023	21,730	...	15.2

³⁶ 8th Annual Report of Inspector of High Schools, North Dakota, 1915, pages 15-17; 26-31; 42. The cost of instruction is estimated from data given in these pages concerning number of teachers and salaries.

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TABLE 11 (Continued)

School	Valuation	Cost of instruction	State aid	Rate necessary to pay remainder of cost
<i>Second-class schools</i>				
Anamoose	\$312,989	\$2642	\$340	7.3
Aneta	314,812	3348	340	9.5
Ashley	184,000	2642	340	12.5
Bathgate	186,740	2642	340	12.3
Berthold	337,827	3348	340	8.9
Average for all (39) second-class schools ..	311,225	3226	...	10.4
Range for all (39) ..	155,832—	2642—	...	4.2—
second-class schools...	618,018	5466	...	21.2
<i>Third-class schools</i>				
Belfield	\$388,474	\$1726	\$204	3.9
Bowman	434,012	2373	204	4.9
Buffalo	401,638	1726	204	3.7
Buxton	254,349	1726	204	5.9
Calvin	248,548	2373	204	8.7
Average for all (52) third-class schools	275,518	1987	...	7.2
Range for all (52)	113,321—	1726—	...	3.0
third-class schools...	499,133	3020	...	18.0

the same aid to all approved schools was discussed, so that a comparison of rates necessary to pay that part of the high school cost not paid by the state aid answers the first question. Thus, in first-class schools in North Dakota, we find a range of rates from 2.7 mills to 15.2 mills, while in the 5 schools given in the table only 2 have a rate approximating the average rate.

The second question, to what extent do the amounts given to the different classes of schools succeed in aiding such schools according to need, is difficult to answer because of the uncertainty that we have the same basis for comparing the different classes. We should be certain, in order to make a fair comparison, that the

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pupils in a two-year high school have as effective instruction as pupils in the first two years of a four-year school. If, to consider just one of the numerous factors involved, we compare the effectiveness of the instruction by the average salaries paid in the different classes of schools, we find the average salary as given in the annual high school report is:

Superintendents, first-class schools	\$1848
Superintendents second-class schools	1250
Principals, third-class schools	1081
Assistants (including principals), first-class schools.....	803
Assistants (including principals), second-class schools.....	713
Assistants, third-class schools	681

Apparently, then, from the fact that the salaries are higher in the higher-class schools, the different classes are not on the same plane of effectiveness.

If, however, we assume, for illustrative purposes, that the classes of schools are comparable, it would appear from Table 12 that the second-class schools

TABLE 12

	Average valuation	Average cost of instruc- tion	Amount of state aid	Average rate
First-class schools	\$908,718	\$6090	544	8.6
Second-class schools	311,225	3226	340	10.4
Third-class schools	275,518	1987	240	7.2

should, compared with those of the first-class, in general, receive a larger sum than they do now, and that the third-class schools, compared with those of the first-class, should in general receive a little less than

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they now do. Remembering, though, the probability that the third-class schools in order to be on the same plane of effectiveness must make a greater effort than they now do, it is quite likely that they should not have the present amount of aid reduced.

The data are not now available for making a similar evaluation of the classification basis for granting aid as employed in Pennsylvania and West Virginia. It is not unlikely that similar results would be found in these states were such an evaluation feasible. Such laws, by dividing the schools into groups on the basis of the effectiveness of the work done, rather than on some basis considering the cost of maintaining schools and the wealth against which this cost is assessed, must certainly show inequalities even in schools having about the same standards of effectiveness. It is quite likely, too, that the amount given by the state to the different classes of schools is determined somewhat arbitrarily rather than by a careful study of comparative needs in the different classes. At least such is the conclusion one is tempted to draw from the data given in Table 12. In fact, it does not seem possible to divide the high schools of a state into groups upon the basis of effectiveness of work done and give to each group that amount that will equalize, even in a general way, the needs of individual schools.

4. *The Attendance*

Rhode Island and Utah distribute their aid on the basis of attendance. In Rhode Island, each town maintaining an approved high school is allowed \$25 for each of the first 25 pupils in average attendance and \$15 for each of the second 25 pupils in average attendance. In Utah the income from a state high

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school tax of two tenths of a mill is apportioned to the schools meeting certain standards upon the basis of the number of pupils who have been in attendance at least 20 weeks during the year. In 1914, when the rate was one half mill, the state was enabled to pay \$15.37 for each pupil.⁸⁷

Theoretically, at least, the Rhode Island law is the better. It tends to limit the amount that may be given to the larger high schools, since aid is granted for 50 pupils only. It favors the small high schools by allowing a higher rate for the first 25, and, in comparison with the large high schools, favors those of medium size by allowing something for the second 25 pupils. The Utah law, on the other hand, makes no such distinction, the same amount being given for each pupil who has attended for at least 20 weeks. As a result we find in Utah that in 1914 Salt Lake City received 27 per cent of the entire state high school fund and that the 5 largest schools received 56 per cent of the entire fund.⁸⁸

To what extent is attendance a measure of high school need? Without doubt it does indicate need in a general way, for a high school with 200 pupils will have much greater costs than one with 50 pupils. It may be true that in 2 schools of 50 pupils each the costs will be about the same, but it is also quite likely to be true that a school with 65 pupils can be maintained at the same degree of effectiveness for a sum no greater than is required for the school of 50 pupils. Even granting that attendance does give a general index of what it will cost to maintain a high school, attendance can give no information concerning the other

⁸⁷ *Utah School Report, 1913-14*, page 70.

⁸⁸ Computed from data in *Utah School Report, 1913-14*, page 70.

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factor involved in estimating school need, the property valuation of the community. Table 13 illustrates these conclusions for Rhode Island for 1913-14.

TABLE 13 ³⁹

Schools	Valuation	Cost of high school instruction	Amount from state	Tax rate necessary to pay remainder of cost of instruction
Barrington	\$5,035,558	\$1,498	\$925	.00011
Bristol	7,244,400	6,524	1000	.00076
Burrillville	4,462,450	2,090	1000	.00024
Central Falls	11,364,965	6,531	1000	.00048
Cranston	23,486,355	12,733	1000	.00049
Cumberland	9,885,114	3,125	1000	.00022
East Providence ..	13,570,869	9,892	1000	.00065
Hopkinton	1,510,450	1,650	880	.00051
Newport	63,364,109	33,801	1000	.00052
New Shoreham....	984,950	600	745	.00000
North Kingstown..	4,843,030	3,284	1000	.00047
Pawtucket	53,741,070	25,459	1000	.00045
Providence	333,686,980	187,018	1000	.00056
South Kingston ...	5,738,443	5,310	1000	.00075
Warren	6,818,335	3,500	1000	.00037
Westerly	9,779,900	8,786	1000	.00079
West Warwick	10,474,235	8,411	1000	.00077
Woonsocket	28,142,800	10,251	1000	.00033

East Providence and Cranston had practically the same attendance and each received \$1000 from the state, but there is a difference of almost \$3000 in the cost of the two schools.⁴⁰ The rates of all towns, while low, vary from .00011 to .00079.

³⁹ 70th Annual Report of Commissioner of Public Schools of Rhode Island, 1914, pages 156, 161. The information concerning the amount from the state was given by the state department. For a statement of school tax inequalities in the state, see the commissioner's discussion on pages 110 and 111 of the Report.

⁴⁰ This is an illustration of how, in order to make a really valid comparison of schools, in estimating their need, we should have some definite statement of minimum standards. It could then be

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In 1914, the Rhode Island law had practically the effect of giving \$1000, the maximum allowed, to each high school, since only 3 of the 18 towns received less than this amount. The reason for this is, of course, that rarely do high schools have fewer than 50 pupils. If, therefore, Rhode Island continues to make use of the attendance method of measuring high school needs and if she wishes to assist the smaller schools in greater proportion than the larger schools, it will be necessary for her to revise the attendance limits for which aid will be given. The following table indicates the number of schools that would receive the maximum amount under different limits, on the basis of the 1914 attendance:

TABLE 14 ⁴¹

Aid for	50 pupils (as at present)	gives maximum amount of aid to	...15 towns
" " 100 "	"	would give maximum amount of aid to	...11 "
" " 150 "	"	"	...8 "
" " 200 "	"	"	...7 "
" " 250 "	"	"	...6 "
" " 300 "	"	"	...3 "

5. *The School and the Attendance*

In California \$15 for each pupil in average daily attendance during the preceding year is raised by a state high school tax. One third of this is distributed to the approved high schools of the state, giving to each, in 1913-14, about \$871. The remaining two thirds of

determined whether a school is just meeting those standards or whether it is doing that and something more.

⁴¹ 70th *Annual Report of Commissioner of Public Schools of Rhode Island, 1914*, page 157. The attendance figures here given include the non-residents for whom aid is not given the high school where they attend. These non-residents, being only about one tenth of the entire attendance and probably fairly well distributed among the different high schools, doubtless have little effect upon the validity of this table.

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the fund is apportioned on the basis of average daily attendance, giving about \$10 for each pupil.⁴²

This method of measuring the needs of high schools, by granting a certain sum to each approved school before distributing on the basis of attendance, aids the small school to a greater degree than it does the large school. This is shown in Table 15, where a comparison is made of the amount per pupil received in California high schools of different sizes under the present plan of distribution and under a plan of apportioning all on the basis of attendance. If the whole fund were

TABLE 15

School	Attend- ance	Amount now re- ceived on basis of		Amount now re- ceived		Amount received was all given on attendance	
		School	Attend- ance	Total	Per pupil	Total	Per pupil
1	25	\$871	250	\$1121	\$44.84	\$375	\$15
2	50	871	500	1371	27.42	750	15
3	100	871	1000	1871	18.71	1500	15
4	200	871	2000	2871	14.35	3000	15
5	500	871	5000	5871	11.74	7500	15
6	1000	871	10000	10871	10.87	15000	15

distributed on attendance, each school would, of course, get \$15 for each pupil. Under the plan employed, the 25-pupil school would receive \$44.84 for each pupil in average daily attendance; the 200-pupil school, \$14.35; the 1000-pupil school, but \$10.87. On the assumption that the small school is in greater relative need than the large school, a situation which is generally true, the California plan of granting a certain amount to each school before apportioning the money on attendance is distinctly superior, from the point of

⁴² Computed from data in *California Biennial School Report, 1913-14*, pages 37, 42.

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view of equalization, to such a plan as that of Utah, where attendance is the only factor considered.

Table 16 gives information regarding the extent to which high school burdens are equalized in California. Counties having the same number of high schools and almost the same number of high school teachers are

TABLE 16 43

County	No. high schools in county	No. teachers in county	Average tax rate for maintenance
Glenn	2	11-15	.15
Tuolumne	2	11-15	.115
Yuba	2	11-15	.473
Amador	3	11-15	.33
Siskiyou	3	11-15	.25
Nevada	3	16-20	.283
San Luis	3	16-20	.475
Shasta	3	16-20	.282
Kings	3	21-25	.48
Marin	3	21-25	.306
Napa	3	21-25	.38
Placer	3	21-25	.43
Yolo	3	21-25	.353
Average for state	..		.305

compared. Additional data on the equalization effect among the different schools of a single county will be found in Table 24, page 103.

In New York, \$100 is set aside from the so-called "Literature Fund" for each "academic department" or high school. In 1912-13, \$71,400 was used for this

⁴³ *California Biennial School Report, 1913-14*, pages 37, 48. This table is based upon figures secured before the new county high school aid law went into effect.

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purpose.⁴⁴ After the payments are made for books and apparatus and for non-resident tuition, the remainder of the fund is distributed on the basis of attendance of high school pupils. In 1912-13, \$116,148.51 was used in this way.⁴⁴ At one time, from 1818 to 1834, the whole fund was distributed on the basis of attendance. Later a part was given for books and apparatus; still later, a part was given on the basis of credentials earned by pupils in examinations. In 1901 the latter basis was discontinued.⁴⁵

Washington gives from its general school fund \$100 for each grade above the grammar grades having an average daily attendance of at least 4 pupils, and one and one half times the regular apportionment per pupil for attendance. In 1916 8.5 per cent of the total fund estimated for 1916, or \$259,037.87, was used for high school aid. Of this amount \$89,300 was given for the grades maintained, and \$169,737.87 was given for attendance.⁴⁶

In this method we have, theoretically at least, an improvement over distribution on the basis of attendance alone, in that it tends to favor the smaller schools, as shown in Table 15. To the extent that the smaller schools are in greater relative need than the larger ones, this conclusion is valid. Such a law is not, however, a real measure of high school need, since it gives only a general idea of the cost of the school and gives no indication of the wealth of the community that is maintaining this school.

⁴⁴ *Annual Report New York State Education Department, 1914*, page 140.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, pages 137-140.

⁴⁶ *The Apportionment of the Current State School Fund, Washington, 1916*, page 16.

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6. *The Teacher*

This is the basis of distribution in Maryland and Idaho. In Maryland the high schools are divided into 2 groups. Those of the first class, fulfilling certain conditions as to attendance, number of teachers, length of curricula, minimum salaries, provision for manual training, and domestic science and either commercial or agricultural subjects, etc., receive \$600 for the principal, \$300 for each of the first 3 assistants doing regular high school work, \$400 for each of 2 special teachers, \$100 for each additional regular grade teacher, but not more than \$2500 in all. Each of the 4 Baltimore high schools receives \$2500. Second-class schools receive \$600 for the principal, \$400 for 2 assistants in regular high school work, \$400 for a teacher of special subjects, and \$150 if an instructor in manual training or agriculture is required to divide his time among not more than 4 schools of the group.

The Maryland method of measuring the need of high schools is interesting in several particulars. In the first place, it accepts the teacher as the most important item in high school costs and grants aid, within limits, upon this basis. Such a method is quite likely to be more equitable in measuring need than any of the other measures so far discussed, because it gives us a better index of what it costs to maintain a school. It does not, however, consider the other fundamental factor in estimating need, the wealth of the community against which the high school costs are to be assessed. Table 17 shows the equalization effect of the Maryland law. Column 5 gives the rates that certain representative counties must levy in order to pay the remainder of the high school costs under the present method of dis-

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tributing state aid. Thus, Harford and Garrett, each with 6 teachers, have quite different rates. Baltimore City, with an assessed valuation over half that of the entire state, can support its splendid Eastern High School of 37 teachers at an extremely low rate compared with the rates necessary in most of the counties. Since public high schools in this state are maintained by the county, burdens are equalized to a greater extent than they would be if the schools were maintained by districts within the counties.

But, while the number of teachers may be a fair index of the cost of maintaining a school, this principle cannot operate fully in Maryland because that state limits the number of teachers for whom state aid may be granted. In first-class schools aid is given for 3 academic teachers and 2 special teachers only. The general effect of this law should be to help the smaller schools more, in proportion to the cost of the schools, than the larger ones. The actual effect of this limit is indicated in Table 17 also. Column 6 shows what could be received by certain first-class schools at \$600 for the principal, \$300 for each academic teacher, and \$400 for each special teacher. The \$100 given for each additional grade teacher is not counted, since we are concerned with high school teachers only. In most of the counties the first-grade high schools employ about the same number of teachers, so that in these counties it would make little difference under present conditions in the relative rates needed to pay the remainder of the high school cost whether the aid were given for all teachers or for a limited number only. The advantage of limiting the number of teachers for whom aid is given is shown when the large schools are compared with the smaller ones. Thus, under the present law

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TABLE 17 47

County and school	Valuation	Cost of instruction	State aid now	Rate necessary to pay remainder of cost	State aid at \$300 and \$400 for each high school teacher and \$600 for principal	Rate necessary to pay remainder of cost
Allegany:						
Cumberland	\$29,144,313	\$7563	2800	.00018	\$3700	.00013
Anne Arundel	20,537,802	6181	2800	.00019	3000	.00015
Baltimore:						
Cantonville	151,087,892	6181	2800	.000026	3000	.000021
Caroline	10,194,345	5513	2300	.00031	2700	.00027
Carroll	22,979,974	5513	2300	.00014	2700	.00012
Cecil	14,897,223	5513	2300	.00021	3100	.00016
Dorchester	13,394,298	6349	2300	.00034	3300	.00026
Garrett	10,896,250	5482	2300	.00029	2700	.00025
Harford	17,328,766	5513	2300	.00018	2700	.00016
Baltimore City:						
Eastern	550,153,414	25,691	2500	.000042	12300	.000024

47 48th Annual Report, State Board of Education, Maryland, 1914, pages 79, 80, 11, 69-76, 163.

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Baltimore City can receive for its Eastern High School only \$2500, while if aid were given at the same rate for all teachers it would receive about \$12,300. With a rate that is already only about one fifth that necessary to maintain first-class schools in the different counties, Baltimore City would, without the limit, have its rate reduced still more until the rate would be about one eighth that of the average in other counties. Even this reducing of the state aid for the Eastern High School by \$9800 does not make a great difference, comparatively speaking, in the rate that Baltimore City must levy. On the other hand, if their share of this \$9800 were taken away from the other counties it would make a considerable difference in the effort some of them would have to make to keep their high schools up to the present standard. In 1913-14 each second-class school received \$1400, the maximum for schools of that grade, and each first-class school received \$2300, the maximum allowed for high school teachers in schools of the first grade.⁴⁸

In Idaho 3 per cent, or as much as is needed, of the combined state and county school funds is set aside for the benefit of rural high school districts and consolidated districts which do approved high school work. This sum is distributed among the teachers in such schools, not more than \$200 being given for each high school teacher. In 1913, 21 rural high schools were reported as employing 42 teachers. 21 counties did not report rural high schools.⁴⁹ Compared with the Maryland statute, this is a very simple law, there be-

⁴⁸ *48th Annual Report, State Board of Education, Maryland, 1914*, pages 80, 82.

⁴⁹ *1st Biennial Report, State Board of Education, Idaho, 1913-14*, page 264. See also note 31, Chapter III.

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ing no limits as to number of teachers for whom aid may be given, no maximum amount to be received by any school, and no differentiation of sums for different kinds of teachers. It does, however, make a distinction between town and rural high schools, giving special aid only for the rural schools. This tends to encourage the development of high schools in such districts and doubtless tends to equalize somewhat the difference in ability of town and rural communities to maintain high schools.

7. *The Teacher and the Attendance*

New Jersey employs this basis. In this state the state and county funds, with the exception of the income from the state school fund, are distributed among the counties on the basis of ratables, 90 per cent of the tax paid by each county being returned to it and 10 per cent constituting a reserve fund to be distributed according to the discretion of the state board of education. The state school fund is distributed on the basis of days' attendance. In each county the state and county funds are distributed to the districts on the basis of teachers employed, rebates for tuition and transportation, and attendance; \$600 is given for the employment of a principal giving his entire time to supervision; \$400 for each teacher in a four-year approved high school; \$300 for each teacher in a three-year approved high school; \$200 for each teacher in a two-year or a one-year approved high school; \$80 for each temporary teacher employed for not less than four months. The amount left after the apportionments have been made for all high school, elementary, and special teachers and for tuition and transportation, is distributed on the basis of total days' attendance of

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pupils, high school and elementary pupils sharing equally.⁵⁰

It is thus evident that the amount given for attendance will vary in the different counties. Estimates made for 1914-15 by the state department of education show an average rate of 7.1 cents for the state, the range being from 16 cents to .9 cents, and a total amount given for high school attendance of \$473,726.32.

Here, again, we have the teacher, as the principal item of cost in maintaining schools, used as the chief basis for giving assistance, with the attendance of pupils as an additional index of school costs. Except for the 10 per cent reserve fund which is to be distributed among the counties according to the discretion of the state board,⁵¹ no account is taken of the ability of a community to maintain minimum standard schools. The New Jersey method of assisting high schools, therefore, practically neglects this factor, since the high school aid is distributed by the county superintendent from the funds paid to the county by the state.

8. *The Cost of Instruction*

In Maine a town is reimbursed to two thirds the cost of instruction, not exceeding \$500 to any school, for maintaining an approved school of any one of the 3 classes. In Wisconsin one half the cost of instruction is given, but not over \$500 to a district high school, and, in the case of a town or union district high school, not more than \$900 when the school has a principal and 1 assistant, \$1200 when it has a principal and 2

⁵⁰ *New Jersey School Law, 1914*, sections 206-224.

⁵¹ In the *New Jersey School Report, 1914*, pages 125-127, a history and description of the reserve fund is given.

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assistants, and \$1500 when it has a principal and 3 or more assistants.

This method is suggestive in that instead of adopting the amount raised by the local community, the classification of the school, the attendance, or the number of teachers as a measure of the high school needs of a community, it adopts the actual cost of instruction as such a measure. This actual cost of instruction, being usually the largest item in school costs, gives a more reliable measure of what it costs to maintain a high school than do the others just enumerated. However, neither Maine nor Wisconsin considers the wealth of the community as a second and necessary factor in measuring need.

The equalization effects for Maine are illustrated in Table 18, on the following page.

What effect do the maximum sums allowed each school have in these states? Table 19 gives information on this point.

It will be noticed that in Maine only 15 per cent of the schools aided received less than the maximum. Since the law permits reimbursement to the extent of two thirds of the cost of instruction not exceeding \$500, and since the average cost of instruction in all the high schools is \$2408, it is quite certain that the great majority of schools will always, under the present law, be entitled to the maximum sum given by the state. If only one half the cost of instruction were paid, the percentage of schools receiving the maximum sum in 1913-14 would have been reduced from 85 to 72. If but one third of the cost of instruction were paid, only 48 per cent would have received the maximum.⁵² In

⁵² *Ibid.*, 179-186. The average cost of instruction is computed from information given in these pages.

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TABLE 18 ⁵³

Town	Assessed valuation	Cost of high school instruction	Amount of high school aid	Rate necessary to raise remainder of cost
Class A:				
Abbott	\$220,000	\$1,209	\$500	3.2
Albion	387,000	978	500	1.2
Alfred	407,000	1,107	500	1.5
Ashland	675,000	1,533	500	1.5
Auburn	11,033,000	14,314	500	1.3
Class B:				
Andover	360,000	862	500	1.0
Brooks	333,000	768	500	.8
Brownfield ..	370,000	863	500	.9
Canton	352,000	957	500	1.3
Casco	296,300	540	360	.6
Class C:				
Baileyville ...	1,560,000	886	500	.2
Canaan	330,000	752	500	.7
Carthage	171,875	540	372	.9
Cumberland ..	137,000	495	330	1.2
Denmark	440,000	720	432	.6

Wisconsin none of the district high schools received less than the maximum in 1912-13, while in the township and union district schools the percentage was 100, 82, and 54 for schools of different size.⁵⁴

An evaluation of the maximum rates in these states must rest largely upon which of two policies seems at the present time to be the more important. If one emphasizes the notion that all high schools should receive

⁵³ *Maine School Report, 1914*, pages 108-136; 179-181; 202. The assessed valuations are computed from data given on pages 108-136.

⁵⁴ *16th Biennial Report, Department of Public Instruction, Wisconsin, 1912-14*, pages 94-107.

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TABLE 19

State	Maximum state aid	No. high schools aided	Average cost of instruction	Per cent of schools receiving less than maximum
Maine ⁵³	\$500	185	\$2408	15
Wisconsin: ⁵⁴				
District	500	258	4429	0
Township or union district:				
Prin. and 1 teacher	900	15	1543	100
Prin. and 2 teachers	1200	17	2301	82
Prin. and 3 teachers	1500	13	3751	54

aid so as to bring them under the supervision of the state, then the present maximum provisions, which are comparatively low in Maine and in the district high schools of Wisconsin, are perhaps satisfactory. As to whether the schools would place themselves under state supervision for a smaller sum than \$500 is an open question. If, on the other hand, one emphasizes the notion that where the state aid fund is small it should be used largely for aiding the towns in greatest need and according to their needs, then the present maximum rates and methods of distribution should be modified so as to make that result possible.

9. *The Property Valuation*

The Missouri law requires that the maximum levy provided by law for maintenance (100 cents on the \$100) be made, that an approved high school be maintained, etc., before assistance may be given. Communities are then aided as follows: if the valuation is less than \$300,000, \$800 from the state; valuation

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\$300,000 and less than \$400,000, \$600; valuation \$400,000 and less than \$600,000, \$400; valuation \$600,000 or more, \$200. No school may receive more than one half the salary paid its high school teachers the previous year, nor may any school receiving any other form of special high school aid receive money from this fund. Not over 5 per cent of the state school fund may be used for this purpose.

The first interesting phase of this law is the requirement that a community must levy the maximum rate allowed by law for teachers and incidentals before receiving special state aid. The first column in Table 20 shows the percentage of the districts maintaining

TABLE 20 55

Districts maintaining	Rate below 100 cents	Percentage of districts having			
		Valuation less than \$300,000	Valuation \$300,000-\$400,000	Valuation \$400,000-\$600,000	Valuation more than \$600,000
First-class high schools	...	5.7	10.7	19.5	62.9
Second-class high schools	21.6	47.0	15.6	25.5	11.8
Third-class high schools	32.1	78.6	12.1	5.7	3.6

⁵⁵ 65th *Missouri Report of Public Schools, 1914*, pages 147-152; 196-217. The levies given on pages 196-217 are the rates for all school purposes. Whether or not a school of the second or the third class had a rate for maintenance below 100 cents was determined by whether or not it received state aid. This method could not be employed for first-class schools, since many of those were receiving aid for normal training, and under the law could not participate in the general high school aid. If we do not eliminate the normal training high schools, 70.5 per cent of first-class schools had a rate below the rate required; if we eliminate the 85 normal training high schools in 1913-14, only 17.2 per cent had too low a rate to receive general aid. The actual percentage that was eliminated because of tax rate could not be determined, but it lay somewhere between these two figures.

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second- and third-class schools that had a rate below 100 cents and so could not share in the state aid. The same information for districts with first-class schools was not available. The remaining columns of the table show that the higher the class of school maintained, the greater as a rule is the wealth of the district. Thus, in the districts having first-class high schools only 5.7 per cent have a valuation under \$300,000, while 62.9 per cent have a valuation over \$600,000. In this list are to be found most of the cities and towns of more than average wealth. In the districts with second-class schools, 47 per cent have a valuation under \$300,000 while only 11.8 per cent have a valuation over \$600,000. In the districts with third-class schools the same tendency is shown, but to a more marked degree.

An inspection of the tax rates, valuations, and costs in second and in third-class schools indicates that districts maintaining third-class schools are not making as much of an effort in proportion to their wealth as are districts with second-class schools. This will explain the reason that a somewhat larger percentage of schools in the third-class list than in the second-class list have a rate too low to receive high school aid. Further evidence of this is seen in the fact that in 1913-14 the tax rate for all purposes in districts maintaining second-class schools was 122 cents, while in districts with third-class schools it was only 116.3 cents.⁵⁶

This mode of distribution gives a result quite in contrast to the modes employed in some other states. Thus, North Dakota, together with several others, gives most aid to districts maintaining first-class schools and least aid to those maintaining third- or

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*, page 252.

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fourth-class schools. The Missouri law tends to give the most money to the districts maintaining the lower-class schools. Referring again to Table 20, it is seen that in districts with first-class high schools only 5.7 per cent of all would be entitled to \$800 (if there were no tax-rate restriction), while 62.9 per cent would be entitled to \$200 only. On the other hand, 78.6 per cent of the districts with third-class schools might receive \$800, while only 3.6 per cent would be compelled to take \$200. Thus, the using of the property valuation of the community as the basis of distribution tends to give the least aid where it is least needed and the most aid where it is most needed. Table 21 gives some interesting figures concerning individual schools. Four first-class schools are given from each of the 4 classes of property valuations. It will be noticed that, in general, the schools of low valuation have somewhat higher rates, for the reason that a minimum equipment, a minimum number of relatively well-paid teachers, etc., are necessary to maintain a first-class high school. One can therefore readily see the greater justice of giving a poor community more than a wealthy community than in giving both the same sum because both maintain the same class of school.

Variations in tax rate, sometimes marked, may be seen among districts that are put into the same property valuation class. Thus, in districts having a valuation under \$300,000, Everton is required to levy a rate of .0077 to pay the remainder of the cost of maintenance, while Hopkins needs a rate of only .0043. Such variations in rate are certain to occur because districts are divided into 4 classes and because no recognition is given to the element of cost of maintenance. These variations would continue to exist until

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TABLE 21 57

School	Valuation	Maintenance	State aid	Rate necessary to pay remainder of cost
Everton	\$187,600	\$2099	\$656.60	.0077
Hopkins	278,715	1857	656.60	.0043
Knobnoster	275,005	2182	656.60	.0052
Lockwood	240,000	2756	656.60	.0087
Adrian	341,000	3152	492.44	.0078
Bosworth	330,070	2380	492.44	.0057
Braymer	381,220	3554	492.44	.0080
Breckenridge	325,000	3314	492.44	.0087
Belton	503,770	2916	328.30	.0051
Bloomfield	460,000	3693	328.30	.0073
Hardin	427,363	2382	328.30	.0048
Fairfax	401,962	3087	328.30	.0068
Bonne Terre	1,534,830	7224	164.15	.0046
Cartersville	824,105	5076	164.15	.0059
Independence ...	5,382,110	22251	164.15	.0041
Kennett	955,880	3665	164.15	.0036

each district is considered as an individual case and aided according to its valuation and the cost of maintaining minimum standard schools. Yet, while we may raise the question as to whether ultimately Missouri may not find it desirable to aid schools more in accordance with their individual needs instead of putting them into classes according to their property valuations, we must recognize that Missouri has a law based upon right principles in that (1) it tends to eliminate, from the small state aid that can be granted, those schools that are not in relative need; and (2) it gives more aid to a district of low property valuation than to one of high property valuation and so gives most assistance where the need is likely to be greatest.

The law limits the high school fund to 5 per cent

⁵⁷ 64th Missouri Report of Public Schools, 1914, pages 147-152; 196-205.

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of the entire state school funds. In 1913-14 this gave \$96,502.50 for high schools, of which \$45,284.94 was given as unconditional aid and \$51,217.56 was set aside as conditional aid not to be released until the work was approved.⁵⁸ An important phase of the law provides that if the total applications for high school aid exceed the amount in the high school fund, aid is first to be given to those counties having no districts with a valuation over \$300,000. The remainder is then to be prorated among the other schools according to the sum to which they are entitled.

10. *The Property Valuation and the Attendance*

In Vermont if a town has a grand list of

\$5000 or less, \$20 per pupil per school year is given.

More than \$5000 and not more than \$7000, \$15 per pupil per school year is given.

More than \$7000 and not more than \$10,000, \$10 per pupil per school year is given.

More than \$10,000 and not more than \$15,000, \$5 per pupil per school year is given.

More than \$15,000, no rebate is given.

Since the grand list in Vermont means 1 per cent of the entire property list plus a poll list of \$2.00 per poll, this is practically the property valuation basis.

It will be noticed that this law differs from the one in Missouri in several particulars. (1) The amount given each school depends upon the attendance and the valuation alone. (2) Instead of determining the schools that are not in relative need by means of the tax rate levied for maintenance, Vermont eliminates from state aid those towns with a grand list of \$15,000 or over. (3) In the Vermont law there is no statement as to the maximum that may be given any school. In

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*, page 159.

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the main, however, the intent and the spirit of the two laws are alike. Each aims to eliminate certain communities that are not in need, relatively speaking, of state assistance. Each divides the communities into classes according to their property valuation; and each gives a larger sum for communities with a small property valuation than is granted to the wealthier communities. The Vermont law has one characteristic not emphasized in the Missouri law; by considering the attendance, it gives recognition to the cost of maintaining schools as a factor in aiding according to need. This is the first of the laws thus far discussed that emphasizes both the fundamental and constant factors in determining the amount of aid that should be given to a community.

11. *A Combination of Several Factors*

In Minnesota a high school receives \$1800 per year. If the district has a tax levy for the maintenance of schools exceeding 20 mills, it is entitled to additional aid to the extent of one third the amount in excess of that received from the 20-mill levy, but not to exceed \$2500. If a graded school has one or more high school teachers, it receives \$250 for each such teacher. A graded school with more than a 20-mill rate is also entitled to additional aid on the basis of one third the additional expenses not to exceed \$1800. The provision for additional aid has been added in the last two or three years; previously a stated sum was granted each approved high and graded school.

Since the average school rate for communities maintaining state high schools is 19 mills,⁵⁹ the law grant-

⁵⁹ 22d Annual Report of Inspector of State High Schools, Minnesota, 1915, page 54.

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ing additional aid to schools having a rate of 20 mills or over approximates closely the evident intention of the law of giving this additional aid only to communities that are actually in relative need. Here again we find the use of both factors — the wealth of the community and the cost of maintaining schools. The tax rate indicates, therefore, the extent of need as judged by these fundamental factors. In 1914-15, 68 of the 213 towns and cities with state high schools had rates of 20 mills or over, and would therefore have been entitled to this additional aid had it been granted at that time.⁶⁰

All state high schools in Minnesota receive a certain amount of aid without regard to their relative needs. The amount given has varied from time to time, being in 1914-15 \$2200. The new law sets the amount at \$1800. While, from the point of view of a strict logical application of principles of equalization it is desirable to eliminate some of the communities not so much needing assistance from the state, there is one decided advantage in making it possible for all to participate. This advantage comes in placing practically all schools, since practically all will wish the state aid, under some degree of state supervision.

The probable effect of the additional aid provision of the law for the year 1914-15 is shown in Table 22 for certain towns and cities having high schools of different size. By comparing columns 6 and 7 it may be seen to what extent the additional aid of one third the expense in excess of the amount received from the 20-mill levy would reduce the rate necessary to raise the sum now expended. In column 5 there is given the amount that a school would be entitled to were there no \$2500

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, pages 48-53.

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TABLE 22 61

School	Amount raised over revenue from 20 mill tax	No. high school teachers	Amount additional aid		Rate		
			With \$2500 limit	If there were no \$2500 limit	Now	With \$2500 limit	Without \$2500 limit
Ada	\$1351	4	\$450	\$450	22.40	21.61	21.61
Barnesville	2444	2	700	816	26.80	24.50	24.20
Blackduck	6422	2	700	2141	64.00	50.89	42.66
Cambridge	1831	2	445	445	24.70	23.29	23.29
Dawson	3220	4	700	1073	26.50	25.19	24.33
Austin	858	10	286	286	20.80	20.21	20.21
Bemidji	7860	10	700	2453	24.50	24.07	23.01
Grand Rapids	37980	11	700	12660	29.80	29.62	26.53
Spring Valley	1952	10	651	651	22.00	22.00	22.00
Thief River Falls ..	4431	12	700	1477	23.50	22.95	21.23
Crookston	15477	15	700	5159	26.80	26.42	25.43

⁶¹ Ibid., pages 12-17: 48-53. The amount raised over and above the revenue received from a 20-mill tax is calculated from data given in these pages concerning assessed valuation and amount raised for maintenance.

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limit, and in column 8 is given the rate that it would be necessary to levy were there no \$2500 limit.

The Minnesota law gives the following results: (1) It provides a definite amount of state aid to all accredited high schools without regard to the rate of tax levied. This means that many communities with a relatively low tax rate—e.g., Duluth, 5.70 mills—receive assistance. (2) All communities that have a levy of 20 mills receive additional aid. Since the average levy for towns maintaining state high schools is 19 mills, this provision insures that no additional aid is given to communities that are not carrying a tax burden for schools greater than the average for the state. (3) By granting as additional aid one third of the expense over the amount received from the 20-mill levy, the state assumes the attitude of giving this assistance in proportion to the additional burden carried by the community. (4) By limiting to \$2500 the amount that may be granted any school, there is a tendency to prevent a large part of what the state may be able to give as additional aid from going to a comparatively few of the large schools where a small levy will give large returns.

In Tennessee, county high schools are aided "in proportion to the amount of money received by the several schools from other sources and expended annually for the payment of teachers' salaries and incidentals, not including permanent improvements of grounds or buildings," but no county may receive more than one fiftieth of the whole fund and no school more than one third the amount received from other sources and expended for maintenance. If, however, some money remains in the high school fund after the maximum allowed each school has been paid, the remainder may

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be used for (1) stimulating and encouraging departments of industrial work, and (2) giving to such counties as are levying the maximum rate for high schools and are unable to raise \$2000, a sum that will insure a high school fund of \$2000.

It is interesting to compare the Tennessee mode of determining school costs with that employed in Maine and Wisconsin. These two states use the actual cost of instruction, usually the largest item in school expense, only, while Tennessee uses the actual cost of maintaining the whole school, permanent building and ground improvements not being counted. The Tennessee method is clearly the better for determining the actual cost of schools, because it takes into consideration such items as cost of fuel, textbooks where furnished, supplies, and administration, items which are certain to vary somewhat, and properly so, even among communities having the same class of school or an equal number of teachers.

Tennessee goes another step beyond Maine and Wisconsin in considering somewhat the ability of the county to maintain secondary schools. Counties levying the maximum rate and not able to raise \$2000 may receive from the state high school fund enough to have a fund of that size. In 1913-14 there were 15 counties levying the maximum rate of 15 cents on the \$100, but only 4 of these would have been entitled to this additional aid.⁶²

In the same year 35 counties received industrial aid to the extent of \$41,144, this sum being a little over one third the total high school fund.⁶³

⁶² *Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Tennessee, 1913-14*, pages 176, 172-173.

⁶³ *Ibid.*, page 163.

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While there are several commendable phases of the Tennessee law, particularly the one giving additional aid to the poorer counties, these desirable phases of the law are not comprehensive enough to insure an equitable distribution of the high school burden. This is illustrated in the following table. Thus, Campbell County is able to maintain 1 first-class, 2 second-class,

TABLE 23⁶⁴

County	No. high schools			No. teachers	Rate levied
	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3		
Anderson	1	0	3	10	5
Bledsoe	0	1	0	3	15
Bradley	0	0	1	3	10
Campbell	1	2	2	13	10
Cheatham	1	0	0	4	12.5
Claiborne	1	0	0	5	10
Coffee	1	0	0	5	10
Dyer	2	2	4	17	15
Average for state					10.75

and 2 third-class schools with 13 teachers for the same rate that is required in Bradley County to maintain 1 third-class school with 3 teachers.

The South Carolina law makes the following conditions for the apportionment of the high school fund: (1) 2 teachers in the high school department; (2) an enrollment of at least 25 pupils; (3) a special tax of not less than 4 mills; (4) not more than \$500 annually to a high school with 2 teachers, not more than \$600 to one with 3 teachers, not more than \$700 to one with 4 or more teachers; (5) additional aid may be given for the attendance of high school pupils from outside the high school territory and for meritorious work

⁶⁴ *Ibid.*, pages 158, 176.

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in agriculture, manual training, and domestic science. The state board has "full authority to prescribe such regulations as may not be inconsistent with this act . . . and to make regulations for the apportionment and disbursement of the state appropriation" The following rules indicate to what extent the board has gone in making use of this power: (1) "in a 2-teacher school the amount of state aid shall not exceed \$55 a month"; (2) "to high schools of 3 or more teachers, the initial appropriation will be the lowest high school salary up to \$55 a month. Any additional appropriations will be made in accordance with section 6 of the High School Act of 1916, No. 501, page 875, Acts of 1916."⁶⁵ This latter regulation evidently refers to the appropriations for tuition, agriculture, manual training, and domestic science.

From 1907, when the high school aid law of North Carolina was adopted, until 1915 state assistance was given on the basis of the amount raised by the local community. The state duplicated the amount between \$250 and \$500 raised by the community.⁶⁶ In 1915, 4 bases were provided for the distribution:⁶⁷ (1) a minimum amount to each school meeting the requirements of the state; (2) attendance; (3) number of full-time teachers in the high school department; (4) grade and character of the work done. The state board of education has issued a circular in which the operation of the new plan is explained.⁶⁸ The state high school fund of \$75,000 is divided into 3 parts roughly as follows: (1) \$45,000; (2) \$20,000; (3) \$10,000. The

⁶⁵ *State Department of Education, High School Regulations.*

⁶⁶ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1913*, page 96.

⁶⁷ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, pages 54, 55.

⁶⁸ *The North Carolina High School Bulletin*, Vol. VI, pages 145-147.

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first division of \$45,000 is divided on the basis of the number of schools accepted, \$200 being given to each school. The second division of \$20,000 is distributed among those schools maintaining an average daily attendance considerably in excess of the minimum required, employing a sufficient number of teachers, and having a reasonable patronage from outside the local school district. The third division of \$10,000 is distributed on the basis of grade and character of work done, the following factors being considered: number of years in course; number and qualifications of teacher; length of school year; length and number of recitation periods; character of building and equipment; requirements for graduation; general efficiency of the organization; administration and instruction; scope of patronage.

Laws such as those in South Carolina and North Carolina make it possible to consider several factors in giving state aid, and to change the factors or their emphasis from time to time as conditions warrant. While the giving of so much power to the state board might create administrative difficulties in some states, it seems to have worked well in South Carolina for the 9 years in which it has been in operation. It will be noticed, however, that, except for the requirement of a 4-mill levy in South Carolina, practically no weight is given to the wealth of the community. In this respect these two laws are inferior to some that have been discussed. They are superior to most high school aid laws in the flexibility with which they encourage the development of high schools, an aspect of state aid to be considered in Chapter VII.

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C. FUNDAMENTAL AND CONSTANT FACTORS

The foregoing analysis impresses one with the notion that most of the states with special aid for high schools have been actuated more or less by the desire to give this aid according to the relative needs of the different communities. One is not so impressed, however, with the success of these states in securing that result. Considering that the 23 states are using 11 distinct types of distribution, one feels that the whole problem of proper apportionment of state high school funds is still in the experimental stage, and that more fundamental and constant factors than those ordinarily employed for measuring need should be discovered and used.

In Chapter I it was shown that under favorable conditions the cost of maintaining minimum standard schools and the wealth of the community that maintains these schools are the most desirable factors for measuring the amount of money that should be given by the state to any particular community. It is true that the attendance, the classification of the school, the number of teachers employed, etc., do usually give some indication of the ability of a community to do what the state requires in the way of maintaining schools, but it is quite obvious that, under favorable conditions, none of these is so fundamental nor so constant in measuring ability as are the two factors mentioned. With the growth of the feeling that the state should do more in equalizing school burdens and opportunities, it appears quite certain that a more accurate measure than those generally employed for accomplishing this will be demanded.

A valid comparison of the 23 laws for special high

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school aid by using these two factors cannot now be made. The lack of definite minimum standards of a uniform nature among these 23 states, the uncertainty of the extent to which property valuations have been equalized in some of the states, and the lack of sufficiently definite data for applying some laws would vitiate any tabular comparison that might be made at the present time. Yet, by using the two fundamental and constant factors as criteria one may form at least general conclusions concerning the comparative value of methods now employed.⁶⁹

D. SHOULD SPECIAL STATE AID BE THE GOAL?

That this form of aid has been important in the past there can be no doubt: it has made secondary education more of a state affair and a necessary part of the education of American youth than would perhaps have been the case without it; it has lessened the burden for many communities to such an extent that high schools have developed where they otherwise would not; it has been a means of hastening the setting of state standards. On the other hand it has been found, as results are more carefully checked, that special state aid has certain defects: it has sometimes encouraged the de-

⁶⁹ It may be repeated that the classification and evaluation of laws as made in this chapter does not intend to make a wholesale condemnation of present methods of distributing high school aid. The chapter does intend (1) to show the various types of methods now being used; (2) to set up certain criteria that, under favorable conditions, appear to be more fundamental and constant in measuring need than those ordinarily employed; (3) to indicate the lack of equalization in present laws as revealed by these criteria; (4) to show the tendency toward the use of these criteria in certain laws and to make a general and tentative evaluation of the various types by reference to these criteria; (5) to evaluate the more important of the limiting clauses found in existing laws.

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velopment of too many weak high schools (see Chapter VI); it has frequently permitted the development of high schools at the expense of the elementary schools (Chapter VI); it has not tended to develop as much as would be desirable the conception of the elementary school and the high school as a unit in our educational system (Chapter X); it has encouraged the establishment of various funds for a variety of secondary school purposes (Chapter IX) and has therefore been a means of making state aid an unduly cumbersome and complex process. While some of these defects have been due to weaknesses in individual aid laws and could be remedied under proper special state aid statutes, it is well to inquire whether there is some other form of high school support that will correct the defects and give the advantages that special high school aid has brought. Facts and tendencies that suggest tentative conclusions will be presented in Chapter X.

CHAPTER FIVE

COUNTY FUNDS AS A SUPPLEMENTARY SOURCE OF REVENUE FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

A. COUNTY SCHOOL FUNDS

TWO general forms of county assistance to secondary education are found: (1) participation in the general county funds after these are distributed to the various districts; (2) special high school aid, in which special provision is made for the high school. This special aid may be subdivided into (a) county aid for single county high schools; (b) county aid for free high school tuition for all pupils in the county; (c) county aid for high schools within the county that are maintained by the different units; (d) maintenance by the county of all or part of the public high schools within the county. In practically all states these county funds supplement some form of state high school support: general school funds, special state aid for general high school purposes, or special state aid for special high school purposes.

These general county funds are not at all uniform in composition among the various states. In general, they are derived from any or all of these sources: (1) county school taxes; (2) polls, fines, licenses, etc.; (3) rent of lands.¹ The size of the tax varies.² Some-

¹ See *General School Laws of North Dakota, 1915*, sections 1224, 1225; and *Public School Laws of Texas, 1915*, page 5, section 6, for illustrations.

² In Florida, the county is required to levy a tax of from 3 to 7 mills; in Wyoming, to levy enough to pay \$300 per teacher but not more than 3 mills.

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times the county's share in the state school fund is considered as a part of the county school fund.³

B. STATUS OF THIS METHOD

Participation in the general county school funds exists in at least the following states: Florida,⁴ Illinois, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming.⁵ There are undoubtedly many other states with county funds which may be used for high school purposes after these funds are distributed to the various districts.

County high schools are authorized by law in at least the following states: Arizona, California, Colorado, Alabama, Kansas, Iowa, Montana, Nevada, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Oregon, Tennessee, Virginia, and Wyoming. In Nebraska any county in which there is no approved 12-grade high school is required to establish a county high school.

There is a tendency to throw upon the county the responsibility for providing free high school tuition for persons not living in a high school district. Kansas and Oregon illustrate this tendency.

In Kansas, Oregon, California, and Idaho there are funds for the assistance of high schools within the county.

In Maryland the county board of school commissioners is authorized to establish such high schools as are

³ This is the case in Idaho and Florida, for example. See *School Laws of Idaho, 1915*, section 67; and *Digest of School Laws of Florida, 1911*, page 4, section 9.

⁴ Where a definite citation is not given, the authority for the classification of a state is information from the department of public instruction of that state.

⁵ *School Laws of Wyoming, 1915*, page 25, section 4.

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needed, and to maintain them by a county tax.⁶ The same is true in Louisiana.⁷ The high school law of North Carolina provides that the county board of education may organize one or more high schools in each county and that not more than 4 such schools may receive state aid.⁸ In 1908 Alabama passed a law that evidently intended to require the establishment of a county high school in each county, to be under the control of the county board.⁹ However, in 1914 there were 14 counties without such schools.¹⁰ In 1908 Kentucky required that within 2 years the county board of education of each county establish 1 or more county high schools or arrange with a city high school to educate those completing the rural school course.¹¹ Other states have similar laws tending to make the county the unit for school support and control.

C. AN EVALUATION OF COUNTY SUPPORT

As a unit for the development of equalization funds, the county stands between the district and the township on the one hand and the state on the other. Since the county is larger than either the district or the township, it is obvious that equalization funds developed by the county will, in the long run, equalize the burden more than will funds developed by either of the smaller units. By reason of differences in productivity of the

⁶ *Public School Laws of Maryland, 1914*, sections 125; 23-26.

⁷ *Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1914*, page 26.

⁸ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, page 52.

⁹ "The governor, auditor, and superintendent of education shall constitute a commission to locate 1 high school in each of the counties of the state." *General School Laws of Alabama, 1911*, section 1861.

¹⁰ *Annual Report of Department of Education, Alabama, 1914*, page 35.

¹¹ *Kentucky School Laws, 1912*, paragraph 125.

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soil, nearness to the market, or number of children to be educated, one township will be more able to maintain schools of a given standard than will another township. County funds are, therefore, valuable for equalizing the burden of these townships just as the township funds are valuable, to a lesser extent, for equalizing the burden of the districts.

On the other hand, the state is a still more effective unit for the development of equalization funds, since it includes all counties and can, therefore, remedy the inequalities that are apt to exist among different counties. Since the state is the best unit for the development of equalization funds, it would seem desirable that ultimately the township and county equalization funds should be discontinued and the funds now held by these units or the rates now levied by them should be turned over to the state. This would mean that the same effort would be made for education and that the same amount of money would be available for equalization purposes, but that it could be used for equalizing the burden of the whole state rather than that of merely the county or the township.

While this is, logically, a situation to be desired, it must be recognized that just now there is a strong tendency to increase the importance of county support. Doubtless this is due largely to the development of county unit systems of various types which make certain the support of schools by the county to a greater degree. Doubtless, too, in some states there is a strong feeling against the too rapid development of state taxes, with a consequent falling back upon the county as the next best unit for financing public education.

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1. *The General County Funds*

The method of distributing the general county funds is usually the same as that employed in distributing the general state school funds. In only a few states is provision made whereby the county superintendent may modify the method employed by the state. Where such provision is made, the method to be used by the county more nearly approximates distribution according to need and effort than does that used by the state. Thus, Idaho provides that the state superintendent shall apportion the state funds to the county on the basis of the number of children of school age, while the county superintendent is to apportion the county funds and the county's share in the state funds on the basis of number of teachers, number of children, and needs of poor districts.¹²

2. *County Aid*

In the days of sparsely settled counties, when there was frequently not even a single community in a county with sufficient wealth and pupils to maintain a good high school by its own efforts and when usually there was not more than one such community, it was natural that a whole county should pool its efforts for the maintenance of a secondary school. In most of the states in which the county is a political unit of any importance the county high school has, therefore, been an important factor in the development of secondary education. In some states, particularly in the Rocky Mountain region, the single county high school still exists. The majority of states and counties have, however, now gone beyond the point where a single high

¹² *School Laws of Idaho, 1915*, sections 66, 67.

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school meets adequately the needs of the county. Centers of population have developed in various parts of the county, and these have demanded a secondary school training more accessible than that afforded by the central high school. Such, for instance, is the situation at present in Colorado, which has been so well analyzed by Dr. W. A. Cook, High School Visitor of the University of Colorado. He shows that since 19 of the 63 counties of the state have county high schools, and since parts of these county high school districts are maintaining full-fledged high schools in their local districts at their own expense, something must be done to meet the new situation.¹³

One mode of meeting such a situation in the past was to provide free high school privileges. Sometimes this was done by the state, as in Minnesota,¹⁴ or in part by the state, as in Massachusetts; sometimes by a tax upon that part of the county not in a high school district, as in Oregon; sometimes by the whole county as provided by the recent Illinois law; frequently these privileges were furnished wholly or in part by the district in which the pupil lived, as in South Dakota. Of late a few states have extended the movement for free high school privileges by providing for transportation, as in California, and by suggesting the need of some assistance for maintenance of pupils away from home, as in Nevada.

Another mode of settling the problem of secondary school training was to provide a county fund for the aid of all high schools in the county. In California

¹³ *The Colorado School Journal*, Volume XXX, No. 5, pages 7-19. See also *13th Biennial Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Montana, 1914*, page 15, for statement of conditions in that state.

¹⁴ Details of these laws will be found in Chapter VIII.

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such county aid for high schools followed a law for the payment of high school tuition by that part of the county not in a high school district.¹⁵ In Oregon the county tuition law followed the special county aid law.¹⁶

Before turning to the fourth mode of solving this question of secondary school training through the county, it will be well to analyze the special county aid laws for high schools now in existence.

For the 6 years preceding 1915, California required that part of a county not in a high school district to levy a sum sufficient to pay the tuition of all pupils who attended high school. In 1915 the present county high school aid law was adopted. This provides that a county tax be levied so that there is raised: (1) \$60 for each pupil in the county in average daily attendance upon a high school in the county and, under certain circumstances, in attendance upon a high school in an adjoining county; (2) the actual amount paid by a high school board for transportation of pupils not residing in a high school district, not to exceed \$5 per month for each pupil; and (3) if the above estimates do not produce \$250 per teacher, not to exceed 4 teachers for each high school of the county, employed for the full time during the preceding school year, enough more is to be levied to produce this sum. In the distribution of this county fund there is paid: (1) the amount due another county for the attendance of high school pupils; (2) the amount due for transportation of high school pupils; (3) \$250 for each

¹⁵ *School Law of California, 1911*, section 1758; and *School Law of California, 1915*, section 1764.

¹⁶ *Oregon School Laws, 1913*, sections 361-371; *Oregon School Laws, 1915*, sections 398-408.

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full-time teacher employed, not to exceed 4 teachers for any high school; (4) the remainder on the basis of average daily attendance.¹⁷

Obviously, such a law has an advantage over the older tuition law in that the whole county is made to contribute more to secondary education. On this point Commissioner W. C. Wood says:

"An investigation of the problem of financing secondary education in California revealed the fact that property assessed at \$400,000,000 — one seventh of the total assessed valuation of the state — was not subject to a high school district tax. Pupils living in territory outside of high school districts were attending high schools furnished and maintained by the high school districts, and paying only a small tax to meet tuition charges. The average rate of tax for high school purposes levied on property in high school districts was about 5 mills, while the average rate levied in territory outside of high school districts for tuition of pupils attending from such territory was about seven tenths of a mill. In other words, territory inside was paying at least seven times as heavy a rate as territory outside."¹⁸

A specific illustration is given from Solano County. Property within high school districts is taxed from 17 to 56 cents per \$100 for the maintenance of high schools. The territory outside of high school districts is paying only 5 cents per \$100 for high school tuition.¹⁹ It is doubtful if this is quite a fair comparison, since families living far from the high school were compelled, under the old law, to furnish transportation or to pay for room and board if the transporta-

¹⁷ *School Law of California, 1915*, section 1764.

¹⁸ From statement entitled "Establishment of County High School Fund."

¹⁹ *Report of Commissioner of Secondary Schools, 1914*, page 25.

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tion was not provided by the high school. There is no doubt, however, that such a plan is superior to the payment of tuition as a means of distributing the burden for supporting secondary education, and that the adoption of such a plan indicates a high status of educational sentiment.

Commissioner Wood²⁰ has furnished data showing the increased extent to which the maintenance of high schools in certain counties is borne by territory outside the high school districts (see Table 24). In Alameda County the tax of such territory increased from 4 cents to 13 cents; in Butte County, from 8 cents to 13 cents; in Colusa County, from 5 cents to 10 cents; in Contra Costa County, from 5 cents to 8 cents; in Humboldt County, from 3 cents to 12 cents; in Imperial County, from 9 cents to 13 cents. The way in which the law will work in a county is shown by the following data from Colusa County. To each of the 5 high school districts there is given \$250 for each of 4 teachers, or \$1000, and about \$37 for each pupil in average daily attendance. The last two columns give a comparison of the tax rate necessary in each district under the old law and under the new law. It will be noticed that in all the districts except Pierce the rate is lower under the new law. This means that the additional burden is borne by the territory outside of the high school district. It should also be noticed that this outside territory is not bearing as great a burden as are the high school districts, since the rate in the former is 10 cents while the average rate for the latter is 26.6 cents.

From this table one learns also something of the equalizing effect of this new law. That the rates are

²⁰ In personal letter, December 27, 1915.

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TABLE 24

High school	Net amount raised by district, 1918-19	Apportionment on teacher basis — new law	Apportionment on average attendance — new law	Total amount apportioned from county fund — new law	Amount to be raised by district — new law	District rate under new law	County rate under new law	Total rate under new law	Total rate under old law
Colusa	\$9542	\$1000	\$2664	\$3664	\$5878	28¢	10¢	38¢	50¢
Maxwell	5513	1000	1332	2332	3181	15	10	25	30
Pierce (Coll. City)	7798	1000	1591	2591	5207	9	10	19	15
Princeton	5099	1000	1395	2395	2804	8	10	18	25
Williams	7314	1000	1358	2358	5056	23	10	33	45

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not fully equalized is shown in the next to the last column, but that the new law does more than the old is indicated by the fact that the average deviation of rates from the average rate under the old law was 11.6 cents, while under the new law it is only 7.1 cents. The giving of \$250 for each teacher up to \$1000 per school before making the distribution on the basis of attendance tends to give an advantage to the school with a small attendance, but by requiring that the school shall, after 2 years of existence, have at least 2 teachers no encouragement is given to the organization of weak schools.

In 1909 Oregon passed a bill providing that a county, upon vote, could develop a county high school fund for the assistance of high schools within the county.²¹ The method of distribution was: not less than \$40 per pupil for the first 20 in average daily attendance and \$30 for the second 20, nor more than \$12.50 per pupil for all the remaining pupils. The total amount from this fund was not to exceed the amount paid by the districts to the teachers employed. In 1915 the county court in any county in which there was not a county high school was required to levy a tax for high school tuition upon that part of the county not situated in a high school district.²² This law is not to apply to any county that has previously provided a county high school fund as described above, except in counties of 100,000 or more inhabitants. At present Multnomah, in which the city of Portland is situated, is the only county required, because of size of population, to substitute the 1915 act for that of 1909.

²¹ *Oregon School Laws, 1909*, sections 258, 260. This law was in operation in 11 counties in 1915.

²² *Oregon School Laws, 1915*, sections 398-408.

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The wisdom of giving a larger amount for the first 20 pupils in attendance than is given for other pupils is shown in Table 25, giving information concerning high schools of different sizes in Marion County, Oregon. Comparison of the last column with the third from the last column shows that if the same amount, say \$30 per pupil, were given for all pupils, the larger schools would usually receive a much larger percentage of the cost of instruction than they now do. Comparison of the next to the last column with the third from the last column shows that the limitation that no school may receive more than it pays its teachers is without effect in these schools. In fact, since the largest amount given is \$40 per pupil and since the per-pupil cost of high school instruction is usually higher than this, it is clear that in very few schools of the state would the teacher limitation have an effect.

The Idaho law which sets aside 3 per cent of the combined state and county funds for the benefit of rural high schools, which is distributed on the basis of not more than \$200 per teacher, has been explained in the preceding chapter.

Kansas has a statute providing that certain counties upon vote may levy a tax of not more than five tenths or nine tenths of a mill (depending upon the valuation of the county) for the assistance of high schools. This fund is to be apportioned pro rata among the high schools in each county according to the estimated cost of maintaining them for the ensuing year.²³ The principal of each high school makes an estimate to the county superintendent, who uses these estimates as the basis for recommending to the county

²³ *Laws Relating to Common Schools, Kansas, 1913*, sections 397-412.

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TABLE 25 24

High school	Cost of instruction	No. years in course	Attendance	Amount received			Percentage of cost received		
				Now	Without teacher limitation	At \$30 each for all pupils	Now	Without teacher limitation	At \$30 each for all pupils
Aumsville	\$640	2	6	\$240	Same	\$180	38	38	28
Hubbard	720	2	12	480	"	360	67	67	50
Jefferson	1560	4	20	800	"	600	52	52	38
Woodburn	2680	4	63	1,687.50	"	1890	64	64	71
Silverton	2820	4	80	1,900	"	2400	67	67	85
Salem	19200	4	494	7,075	"	14,820	37	37	77

²⁴ Data from *20th Biennial Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Oregon, 1913*, pages 52, 53. The cost of instruction is estimated from the figures given concerning number of teachers and average yearly salaries. The attendance figures given are those for enrollment, not the average daily attendance required by the law.

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commissioners the amount of the levy.²⁵ According to the state department it is the policy of practically all counties operating under this law to levy the limit permitted by the law. In 1913 there were 39 of the 105 counties that had adopted this form of county aid.²⁶

A later law of similar import, but with important differences in detail, was passed in 1911. Counties of less than 10,000 population may, upon petition of a majority of the school electors of the county, petition the county superintendent and the county commissioners to extend aid to a certain high school or high schools within the county. The commissioners may levy such tax, not to exceed one and one half mills in counties having a population of 3000 or less nor one half mill in counties having more than 3000 inhabitants, as will be "sufficient to raise the amount necessary to aid such district or districts as said county superintendent and said board of commissioners believe proper." Such high schools are under the control of the county superintendent and the district boards of education.²⁷ This law enables certain counties that could not meet the requirements of the other law to aid high schools, and permits them to do so by petition and action of the county commissioners instead of by election. In December, 1916, there were, according to the state superintendent, but 2 counties operating under this law.

In 1915 Nevada passed a law²⁸ providing for county

²⁵ Superintendent W. D. Ross in personal letter, December 11, 1916.

²⁶ *19th Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Kansas, 1914*, page 221.

²⁷ *Common School Laws of Kansas, 1915*, sections 423-434.

²⁸ *Nevada School Code, 1915*, pages 130, 131.

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aid to district high schools in counties not having a county high school. The commissioners are required to levy a tax of not more than 10 cents on the \$100 of assessed valuation, and high schools are permitted to share in this fund when (1) standard courses are maintained in industrial work, (2) the district is levying a special tax of not less than 15 cents, and (3) free tuition is granted properly qualified pupils in the county. If there is more than 1 high school to be assisted, distribution of the county fund is made by the state superintendent as follows: one third according to the enrollment; one third according to the school census; one third according to the assessed valuation of the districts.

The fourth mode of county aid for high schools is that in which the county becomes the unit for the maintenance of both high schools and elementary schools within the county. While this county unit organization has been in operation in a few of the Southern states for over a quarter of a century, there has been a renewed and increased interest in it during the last few years. The county-unit plan²⁹ aims, in brief, to make the county the unit for the maintenance and the administration of all public schools; levies a tax upon the entire county to be distributed among independent and county districts on the basis of school population, and among the different schools of the county district on the basis of need; enables districts to supplement the county funds when they wish; provides a county school board, taking over many of the functions now exercised by district boards and making the district

²⁹ This is the plan recommended by the Bureau of Education in *County-Unit Organization for the Administration of Rural Schools*, Bulletin, 1914, No. 44, page 8.

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boards custodians of school property and advisers to the county board; and provides a superintendent elected by the county board who is the real professional head of the public schools in the county.

The difference between the county-unit plan for maintaining high schools and special county aid for high schools is, from the financial point of view, largely a matter of the amount of money furnished by the county. Under special county aid only a part of the cost is paid by the county, the remainder coming from the local district or from the state or from both. Thus, in Oregon not over \$40 per pupil is raised by the county. Under the county-unit plan, the county assumes the entire responsibility for maintaining high schools except in those cases where certain independent districts are excluded or where the local districts may levy an additional tax, using also whatever the state may give for this purpose. Frequently, though not always, there is more flexibility under the county-unit system in the way in which the moneys may be distributed to the different schools, the county board being the determining power in estimating the needs of different communities. Thus it may place a four-year high school in one community, a two-year high school in another, one of a single year in a third, and may provide free tuition and transportation for all other communities requiring them.

The following brief statements, which have been checked and approved by the different state superintendents, will give some notion of the present status in certain states that are employing a county-unit or a partial county-unit system.

1. In Maryland all high schools, as well as elementary schools, in each county are under the direction of

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the county superintendent of schools subject to the county board of education, and are maintained by a tax levied upon the entire county. In the establishment of high schools it is necessary to secure the approval of the state board of education, which acts upon the recommendation of the state superintendent. Local trustees have the care of school houses, lands, and equipment but do not employ any one connected with the schools. They may present charges for the removal of the principal teacher, but the teachers and other employees of the schools are selected by the county superintendent subject to the approval of the county board. No local taxes may be levied. No tuition is charged for attendance at a high school, and the county board has authority to provide transportation where necessary.⁸⁰

2. In Kentucky the territory of each county not in towns or cities having separate systems of schools is divided into 4, 6, or 8 educational districts, and these in turn into subdistricts, each with a trustee. The chairmen of the educational districts with the county superintendent form the county board of education. This county board estimates the taxes that should be levied and expends them "as in their judgment as a county board, the needs of the individual schools for white and colored pupils demand." The county tax is not to be levied upon property in cities and towns maintaining a first-class system of schools nor on property in school districts operating under the independent graded-district school law. The subdistrict may, upon vote, levy an additional tax which is to be expended by the county board for the benefit of the subdistrict. The county board is required to estab-

⁸⁰ *Public School Laws of Maryland, 1916*, sections 22-78; 125.

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lish one or more county high schools. If there is already a first-class high school in the county, arrangements may be made to furnish free tuition in this high school. The county board is also empowered to unite with a city or town board to establish and maintain a high school for the joint use of the city and the county. The county board is authorized to provide transportation in consolidated districts, which may include the transportation of high school pupils.³¹

3. New Mexico has only a partial county-unit system. Local district boards, both city and rural, make an estimate of the money needed for schools, and submit this estimate to the county superintendent, who in turn submits it to the board of county commissioners. The commissioners then levy upon the entire county the rate, not to exceed 18 mills in special tax, that will produce the sums asked for by the district boards. County high schools are authorized by an election. Such high schools are under the management of local boards of education, of which the county superintendent is an ex-officio member, and estimates for the support of these high schools are made by these local boards and submitted to the county commissioners. A special high school tax of not more than 2 mills is levied for maintenance, but the cost of site and buildings must be paid by the district in which the high school is located. When there is more than one county high school, the county high school fund is apportioned on the basis of attendance. When an additional high school is established it receives during the first school year not more than one third of the moneys then in the county high school fund. High schools may also be established by local districts as district high schools.

³¹ *Kentucky School Laws, 1912*, Chapter 10.

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In December, 1916, there were 46 district high schools, and 14 county high schools in 9 counties. In county high schools tuition is free to all children of school age residing in the county.³²

Some variations will be noticed in the above county-unit and partial county-unit systems. Sometimes the schools are supported entirely by the county and the state (Maryland); sometimes local taxes may be levied (Kentucky). Sometimes the management is practically in the hands of the county board (Kentucky); sometimes it rests largely with the local board (New Mexico). Sometimes all high schools are under the county board (Maryland); sometimes not (Kentucky). Sometimes the law is permissive (New Mexico); usually compulsory (Kentucky). Usually the county board may use the funds as the needs of the school require, but in the case of New Mexico a definite method of distribution is provided.

While the county-unit system involves a degree of centralization that many states are not yet ready to accept, it now appears certain that the next few years will see a considerable extension of its influence as people become familiar with its supervisory and administrative advantages. No one can, however, predict with certainty what place the county, as compared with the state, will finally have in the supervision, administration, and support of high schools. The next chapter will show certain needs that apparently can best be met through the state.

Four general steps by which the county has been a factor in the development of secondary education stand out rather clearly. These also constitute four

³² House Bill No. 232, 1915; and *New Mexico Code of Public Instruction*, pages 29, 30.

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general modes by which the county is still a factor. (1) There was the single county high school suited to the more pioneer conditions when it was necessary for a whole county to pool its strength in order to maintain a good high school. In nearly all states this situation has now passed. (2) With the development of the county in population and wealth, communities other than the one in which the county high school was located wished for a high school. This led to the discontinuance of the single county high school and the establishment of several high schools in the county maintained by the different districts. To provide free secondary school privileges for those living in districts not able to maintain a high school, free tuition was provided by the district, by that part of the county not in a high school district, by the entire county or by the state. In a few cases transportation also was provided. (3) Under the arrangement whereby the county or part of county became responsible for the tuition, it was found that sometimes the outlying districts could secure secondary school opportunities at a much less expenditure of energy than was required by the districts maintaining high schools. To meet this condition a few states developed county aid for high schools so that such outlying districts would bear a larger share of the burden. (4) Finally, in certain states the high school was conceived as being an integral part of the public school system and a more important part than it was usually considered. Hence, when the county was made the unit of administration and support, the high school was included in the plan, so that under the more advanced schemes of county-unit organization taxes for all school purposes are levied upon the entire county, then used by the county board of

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education according to the needs of various sections. Such flexibility, when properly safeguarded by well-defined principles of determining and supplying need, seems the best form of county participation in secondary as well as in elementary education.

CHAPTER SIX

SOME PHASES OF STATE SUPERVISION OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

A. STATE STANDARDS

THE history of American education shows clearly a tendency toward a greater centralization of power and responsibility in the larger school units, and a greatly increased efficiency as a result of this centralization. The creation of permanent school funds managed by the state; the assessing of state and county taxes for school purposes; the creation of state departments of public instruction; the giving of special state aid for high schools, industrial education, normal training, and weak rural schools; the appointment of state inspectors for these schools and lines of work; the passing of compulsory education laws; certification of the teacher first by the district, then by the county, finally by the state; uniform textbook legislation; etc., etc., all bear witness to this centralizing tendency and to the many lines of educational activity in which it has been carried out. Few persons will be inclined to deny that a more effective school system has been the outcome of this centralization.

In secondary education, as well as in other phases of school work, complete control by the local community has generally meant a neglect of the schools, comparatively speaking, due either to an unwillingness to make a reasonable sacrifice for schools or to ignorance as to how educational progress may be secured. Hence the high school visitor or inspector from the university or the state department has done much to

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take communities away from their provincialism in high school matters.

In spite of the fact that much has been accomplished in the development of an effective system of high schools in most states, any high school visitor or inspector will admit that much remains to be done. This chapter and the following one will deal with four of the most important of these problems by showing how finance laws may be a real factor in their solution.

It must be admitted that the general state school funds have not, as a rule, been of as great influence in setting high standards of school efficiency as they should be. MacDowell has shown in his analysis ¹ that 8 of the states have not set requirements that must be met on penalty of having the state funds withheld. Of the 40 states making such provision 28 require that school be maintained a minimum length of time. However, very few of these require school years of 8 or 9 months; several require only 3 or 4 months; 11 states require the levying and payment of certain taxes; 7, the care for and expenditure of school moneys and the filing of official bonds; 19, the filing of reports; 13, the enumeration of school children; 11, the employing of qualified teachers and superintendents and the paying of a minimum salary; 6, specified school accommodations; 3, the enforcement of the compulsory school law; 7, the introduction of specified subjects into the curriculum; 6, the use of state-adopted texts and state course of study; 1, the observing of laws relating to medical inspection; 1, the excluding of instruction in foreign tongues; 4, the excluding of denominational,

¹ MacDowell, Theodore L., *State versus Local Control of Elementary Education*, page 78. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1915, No. 22.

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sectarian, or partisan instruction; 1, the non-separation of pupils because of race or social position; 1, the closing of schools during institute session; 2, the appointing of a school agent or treasurer and report of the same; 3, the performing of all duties specified by law. Although some states are exceptions, it is quite fair to conclude from these facts that the general school funds even yet have not taken the lead in setting the standard of efficiency that we may expect in the elementary schools.

The reasons for this lack of influence of the general school funds have never been worked out in detail, and it is outside the scope of this study to do so. A reading of the history of education in different states throws some light upon the matter in showing the attitude during the first half of the last century toward free public schools. Swift has summarized this attitude in several pages, of which the following quotation is representative:

"Public sentiment respecting the establishing and maintaining of free schools ranged all the way from indifference, disbelief, and contempt, to open hostility. . . . It may be argued that the existence of such conditions in the West was due, in part at least, to the hardships of pioneer life and the sparseness of population, but in the East, where public schools had existed since colonial days, conditions were frequently little better. The free public school continued to be regarded as a charity school provided for those who were unable to pay. In Massachusetts, the law of 1827 had required all public schools to be free, supported by taxation; nevertheless public schools were 'languishing for support to a degree destitute of public sympathy.' . . . The free school in the South was regarded, generally speaking, distinctly as a charity school. Striking evidence of the truth of this is presented in the fact that the portion of the Permanent

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School Fund established by Georgia in 1821, which was devoted to the support of free schools, was commonly known as the Poor School Fund. . . . After Florida had established a Permanent Common School Fund in 1846, she was unable to secure reports from the schools as to school attendance. From 1850 to 1851 it was provided by law that a county, in order to receive its share of the revenue of the School Fund of Florida, must submit to the State Superintendent, prior to May, 1852, a report of the number of children in each district of the county from five to eighteen years of age who had actually attended school in the district within three months of the date of the report. This law was repealed in 1852 owing to the impossibility of enforcing it."²

But special state aid for high schools has been more fortunate in securing reasonable standards. Almost every state receiving such assistance has set definite standards that must be met by the community before it is entitled to aid. In some cases the state aid law itself sets such standards;³ in most cases some state board has been designated for this purpose.⁴ Information received from most of the state departments of the states giving special aid indicate that very little if anything was done in the setting of high school standards before state aid was adopted.⁵ Sometimes the

² Swift, Fletcher H., *A History of Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905*, pages 161-164.

³ See, for example, *Public School Law of Maryland, 1916*, section 126.

⁴ See, for example, *Laws of Minnesota Relating to the Public School System, 1915*, section 143.

⁵ The following quotation from the high school inspector of South Carolina is fairly representative: "It is fairly correct to say that prior to 1907 there were no definite high school standards in South Carolina. The State Constitution was so worded as to enable districts to use school funds for high school purposes as well as for elementary school purposes. There were no rules what-

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University had done something.⁶ Sometimes detailed requirements were not made until a few years after state aid was first begun.⁷ Usually, too, the standards set for high schools have been such as to place a real responsibility upon the community, a situation which still is not true in regard to participation in the general school funds in many states.

All credit for the development of such standards in the United States cannot, however, be given to state aid. In some states where aid is not given, standardization has made great progress through the influence of the state university or the state department of education. Of late years state departments have taken a greater interest than formerly in this work, without regard to aid from the state — due, doubtless, to the growing recognition of the fact that the development of an effective secondary school system demands such standardization.⁸ While, therefore, special state aid may be given great credit for the development of the spirit for definite standards, it is quite likely that it will not have so great an influence in the future because the demand of the community for an adequate checking system has become a more important factor.

ever governing the establishment or maintenance of high school grades in any school. The only approach to regulations was the adoption of textbooks suitable to high school work."

⁶ Illustrated in Arkansas.

⁷ Illustrated in California.

⁸ Illinois is a good illustration. For many years the University has done most effective work in stimulating the development of high schools. A few years ago the state department undertook to supplement the work of the University, particularly in the non-accredited high schools.

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B. THE PROTECTION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Any one, on a very little reflection, will concede that, desirable as high schools certainly are, it would not be wise to permit their development at the expense of the elementary school. It is essential that all children be provided with a training of reasonably high standard in the elementary grades before provision is made for the smaller number that take the high school course.

It would seem that such a self-evident proposition would need no agitation, much less a careful system of standards and checks to see that it is carried out. The more important reasons why it is necessary to provide in a conscious fashion for the protection of the elementary school are:

1. Many persons in a community do not understand modern social conditions well enough to appreciate the need not only of a school of minimum length but of minimum standards of accomplishment as well. Probably every community has its citizens who consider that the type of education that would do for conditions when they were children will do for the present generation also.

2. Some persons, even if they see the need of continually raising standards for meeting more and more complex conditions, do not see this need clearly enough to overcome the tendency to establish the high school grades at the expense of the elementary school for the standing it gives the town among its neighboring communities. Professor W. H. Hand, high school inspector for South Carolina, has repeatedly called attention, in a laudably fearless manner, to this tendency in his state.

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"In fully one half of the schools that have been reduced from a two-teacher basis to a one-teacher basis, and in nearly all of these that have dropped out entirely, the elementary schools have suffered in some way. In many of them wholly unprepared pupils have been promoted to the high school solely to make the required high school enrollment for state aid. In some instances the highest grade of the elementary school has been utterly destroyed, and in most cases it was done at the direction of the local board. In several instances your inspector has had to refuse to accept such pupils as belonging to the high school.

"Another evil is that of giving a small number of high school pupils to one teacher at a fair salary, and overcrowding the elementary teachers at beggarly salaries. . . . Many of the schools have two teachers teaching three high school grades, and three teachers teaching seven elementary grades. It is highly regrettable that so many school boards and communities are willing to work an injustice to their teachers and to their own children for the sake of getting three or four hundred dollars from the state."⁹

Mr. Hand then gives a table showing some of these evils. For the sake of brevity every third school only has been taken from his table.

School	High school teachers	High school salaries	High school pupils	Elementary teachers	Elementary salaries	Elementary pupils
Williams	1	\$675	20	2	\$585	108
Crocketville . .	1	765	19	2	720	98
Oakway	1	600	38	3	640	159
Due West . . .	2	1137	39	3	1020	131
Pendleton . . .	2	1100	38	3	960	105
Saluda	2	1245	30	3	1160	131
Chesterfield . .	2	1260	40	3	900	223
Cross Hill . . .	2	1450	40	3	1390	143
Elloree	2	1120	26	3	840	174
Ridge Spring . .	2	1440	38	3	1080	130
Brunson	5	2945	76	3	1080	207

⁹ Report of High School Inspector, South Carolina, 1909-10, pages 9, 10.

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The high school inspector of North Carolina has pointed out the same danger in that state.¹⁰

Since it is evident that the elementary school has suffered in many communities of some states and is liable to suffer in some communities of any state, it is necessary that precautionary measures be taken. Very little is found in the statutes dealing with the problem. In Virginia it is provided that

"The establishment of such schools of higher grade or the introduction of such higher branches shall not be allowed to interfere with regular and efficient instruction in the elementary school."¹¹

Oregon has a similar requirement reading thus:

"None of the funds of any district shall be used for the purpose of maintaining a high school, unless said district shall also maintain at least eight months' instruction each year in the lower grades of the school system of this state."¹²

Such requirements are too general to accomplish anything of themselves. They do warn local school boards that there may be a tendency to develop a high school or to introduce high school branches at the expense of the elementary school, but the real effectiveness of such laws depends upon the existence of authoritative boards to define what constitutes "regular and efficient instruction in the elementary school" and to enforce their definitions.

Information given the writer in 1915 by the education departments of 22 states showed that 3 had set no

¹⁰ *5th Annual Report of State Inspector of Public High Schools, North Carolina, 1912*, pages 6-9.

¹¹ *Virginia School Law, 1915*, section 90.

¹² *Oregon School Laws, 1915*, section 361.

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standards for the elementary school; 1 was planning such standards; 2 had them in certain counties; 16 had standards of some sort. Of the 16, however, at least 4 had only nominal standards, such as a state course of study and eighth-grade examinations. More detailed information is available on one factor in elementary school standards — the state regulations concerning minimum school terms. According to Muerman,¹³ the following is the present status:

4	states	have	no	regulations
3	"	require	3	months
6	"	"	4	"
7	"	"	5	"
13	"	"	6	"
4	"	"	7	"
2	"	"	7½	"
5	"	"	8	"
4	"	"	9	"

Such information as we have indicates that, in general, the states do not have the standards for the elementary school that are necessary to protect it from the unrestricted development of the high school. It constitutes, therefore, a real problem to be solved before the right kind of secondary school system can be developed in a state.

C. REGULATING THE ESTABLISHMENT OF HIGH SCHOOLS

Not every community should be encouraged or even permitted to establish a high school. If this were done the country would soon be filled with a large number of small, inefficient high schools with only here and there a really efficient one. That too little regard has been

¹³ Muerman, J. C., *Minimum School-Term Regulations*, pages 14-18. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 42.

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given to this problem in the past is indicated by the remarks of various state superintendents and high school inspectors. In the report of the high school inspector for South Carolina for 1910, the situation is stated in these words:

"At this stage in the development of our high school system, we are in great need of standard schools, by which is meant four-year schools with sufficient teaching force to offer several parallel courses of study to pupils of widely different tastes and needs. The state needs at least 50 good standard high schools, and they can be easily had by abandoning the multiplication of the little one-teacher schools, and by consolidating many of those already established. Our present plan is wasting money, working an injustice to the pupils by giving them inferior schools, and clogging the progress of high school development."

He then illustrates this weakness by reference to one county of the state in which the energy was so distributed that little progress could be made. Continuing, he says:

"Of the 338 high school pupils in these eight schools, not one can find a fourth-year class in the county, and in this particular the county is no better off than it was five years ago."¹⁴

The same problem has been mentioned by other state school officers, among whom are those of New Jersey,¹⁵ Utah,¹⁶ and North Carolina.¹⁷

¹⁴ *Report of High School Inspector, South Carolina, 1909-10*, pages 23-26.

¹⁵ *New Jersey School Report, 1909*, page 11.

¹⁶ *Utah School Report, 1913-14*, pages 76-78.

¹⁷ *3d Annual Report State Inspector of Public High Schools, North Carolina, 1910*, page 11.

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1. *The Chief Factors in Regulating the Establishment of High Schools*

To insure the development of the most efficient high school system by regulating the establishment of high schools, the careful evaluation of a number of factors is required. Three of the most important of these factors may be mentioned.

1. The number of pupils who are ready to do high school work should be considered. If there are only a few, it would undoubtedly be less expensive to provide free high school privileges elsewhere. Several states have indicated the number of pupils that they consider necessary to do effective high school work, though not all of these provisions are for exactly the purpose here under discussion. In order to receive state aid in South Carolina a high school must have a total enrollment of at least 25 pupils, with a minimum of 5 in any one grade.¹⁸ In Maryland a first-grade high school must have an enrollment of at least 80 and an average daily attendance of at least 70; a second-grade high school must have an enrollment of at least 35 and an average daily attendance of 30.¹⁹ Indiana requires that there be 25 common school graduates in the township before a graded union high school be established.²⁰ California declares the high school district lapsed when the average daily attendance during the whole of any school year after the first year is 10 or less.²¹ Missouri requires an average daily attend-

¹⁸ *General School Law of South Carolina, 1916*, section 1812 f, and rule 56, page 66.

¹⁹ *Public School Laws of Maryland, 1916*, section 126.

²⁰ *School Law of Indiana, 1911*, section 70.

²¹ *School Law of California, 1916*, section 1735.

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ance of 15 in schools receiving state aid.²² While only the case of Indiana shows the number of pupils required to establish a high school, the other cases throw light upon the number that different states consider necessary to carry on effective high school work.

2. A second factor is the ability and willingness of the locality to support a high school. The circumstances would be unusual that would justify the establishment of a high school in a community where a tax rate equal to the average for the state is necessary to support a standard elementary school. If, however, the community is willing to tax itself beyond this rate for the support of a high school and if the other factors make its establishment desirable, then this may be done. Some states have endeavored to define the ability that is necessary to establish a high school by allowing only units with a certain population to do so. Thus, Arizona requires that the district or combination of districts have an average daily attendance of at least 200.²³ Colorado permits districts of the first and second classes, having a school population of 1000 and 350 respectively, to establish high schools.²⁴ Illinois allows districts of 2000 population to do so.²⁵ These provisions are attempts to define the ability that is necessary to attempt the development of a public secondary school by assuming that a district with a certain minimum population will have wealth enough to support a high school and will have pupils enough to justify its establishment. It is evident that there may or may not be a correlation between these facts. In

²² *Revised School Laws of Missouri, 1913*, page 94.

²³ *School Laws of Arizona, 1913*, section 2770.

²⁴ *School Laws of Colorado, 1915*, sections 110, 220.

²⁵ *School Law of Illinois, 1914*, section 89.

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at least one state the high school inspector has suggested a certain valuation as a tentative factor for determining when high schools should be established.²⁶ Indiana has recently provided that in townships having a valuation of more than \$600,000 a high school must be established under certain conditions.²⁷

3. A third factor to be considered in deciding whether a high school should be established is the ease with which a standard high school may be reached. A community that is within a few miles of a standard high school and which, by reason of good roads or other means of transportation, is easily accessible, should rarely establish a high school unless the other factors outweigh this advantage.

2. *Who Should Evaluate the Factors?*

It is clear that no one of these factors should be considered alone; others are likely to enter, but these are the most important. How to evaluate properly the factors in deciding what grade of high school a community should maintain or whether it should attempt any high school work is a difficult problem. It cannot be left entirely to the local school board, as this board is apt to interpret conditions according to local desires. In Chapter V it was shown that under the county-unit system it is customary to give this power to the county school board and its executive officer,

²⁶ "It seems to me wise to discourage the establishment of high schools in districts having an assessed valuation of less than \$400,000 except in places so located that there is a strong probability of a large non-resident attendance or in which other special conditions are such as to justify an exception to the general rule." *Biennial School Report, Wisconsin, 1908-10*, pages 39, 40.

²⁷ *School Laws of Indiana Enacted by the General Assembly of 1913*, pages 28, 29.

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the county superintendent. There is a decided advantage in this, since the county officials know the situation intimately and are, therefore, in a position to decide more intelligently. There is, however, the danger that county boards may be influenced by local pressure more than would be desirable. If some policies were outlined by state school officials concerning the establishment of high schools, and if it were possible for special conditions to be given consideration when recommended by the county school officials, the danger of yielding to local pressure would be greatly reduced. There would be the added advantage of greater uniformity in the establishment of high schools among the different counties. A plan similar to this is in operation in at least Maryland and Louisiana, where it is provided that the county may establish high schools only with the approval of the state superintendent or state board of education.²⁸

A few of the special state aid laws have provisions tending to limit the number of high schools that may be aided in a single county. Thus, in Alabama only 1 county high school is provided for.²⁹ In North Carolina not more than 4 high schools in any county may be assisted.³⁰ In Tennessee the provision that not more than one fiftieth of the entire state aid for high schools may go to any county doubtless tends to limit the number of county schools that are established.³¹ In these laws nothing is said, however, about the location of high schools so that they will best serve the secondary school needs of the county.

²⁸ *Public School Laws of Maryland, 1916*, section 125; *Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1916*, page 116.

²⁹ *General Public School Laws of Alabama, 1915*, section 1861.

³⁰ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, page 52.

³¹ *Public School Laws of Tennessee, 1913*, page 73.

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This brief statement of problems indicates that while special state aid has done much to assist the development of secondary education through the establishment of state high school standards, it has not yet met adequately the need of protecting the elementary schools and of regulating the establishment of high schools in order that a really effective and unified school system may be developed. Chapters VII and X will offer suggestions on this matter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

STIMULATING AND MEASURING THE EFFORT OF LOCAL COMMUNITIES

A. STIMULATING HIGH SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

WHILE many communities where high schools should be established must have the stimulation of state requirements before they realize the necessity of reasonably good high school facilities, or are willing to expend the energy for providing them, there are, on the other hand, in every state, communities with such strong educational interests that they will demand and provide opportunities for adolescent training in advance of any requirements set from the outside. Illustrations of this latter tendency may be found in practically every city, where special curricula and schools are provided for different vocational interests, where teachers are paid unusually high salaries, and where almost lavish expenditures are made for buildings and equipment. Illustrations of the same tendency, to a lesser degree, may be found in many towns where salaries are better, equipment is superior, and curricula are more numerous than are required by the state standards.

This tendency is significant. Schools with this spirit set the pace for the other schools until it becomes feasible to put the standards for the whole state a peg ahead. The tendency ought, therefore, to be encouraged, and it will be the purpose of this chapter to show how state finance laws are a factor in this encouragement.

Sometimes this improvement in the schools is made only by the levying of a higher tax rate than is levied

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by most communities; in many cases, because of the relatively great wealth of the community, such improvement involves an effort no greater or, in some cases, even less than the effort made by the smaller communities of the state. Illustrations may be found in Minnesota. There the average levy for towns and cities maintaining state high schools is 19 mills. Minneapolis, with its unusually splendid system of schools, has a rate of only 9 mills; Duluth, one of the larger cities of the state, 5.7 mills; Hibbing, a mining town in the Iron Range, 1.6 mills.¹

This being the situation to a greater or less degree in every state, it becomes desirable to determine: (1) what constitutes effort; (2) what methods may be devised for measuring the degree of any effort found; (3) in what way and to what extent this effort should be rewarded. An analysis of existing methods of stimulating, measuring, and rewarding effort is a desirable preliminary to answering these questions.

B. MEANS NOW EMPLOYED FOR STIMULATING DEVELOPMENT

We cannot say that, in all cases, the special high school aid laws have been formulated with the avowed purpose of stimulating communities to make a greater effort for secondary education. In some cases this is quite clear; in others the result has been attained possibly without such being the intention of the law. The following is a classification and brief evaluation of the various laws now in force.

¹ *22d Annual Report of Inspector of State High Schools, Minnesota, 1915*, pages 48-53.

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1. *Encouraging an Increase in the Classification of the High School*

North Dakota gives \$800 to a standard four-year high school; \$500 to a three-year school; \$300 to a two-year school; \$200 to a one-year school. The intention here may be to reward effort or to relieve need, or both. The assumption seems to be that schools with a four-year course are in greater need than those with a three-year course. Data given on page 61 throw much doubt, however, upon the validity of this assumption. The rewarding of effort may easily be interpreted as a result of the law, since a community that is willing to raise the classification of its high school by assuming additional obligations is given a larger sum from the state.

Laws similar to that of North Dakota exist in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Minnesota, Washington, and Maryland. In New Jersey the same principle is made effective by giving larger sums for teachers employed in high schools of higher grade than is given for teachers in schools of low classification.

There are no data available to show the exact effect of this type of law in raising the classification of high schools. Some indication of the possible effect of the law may be seen in the figures on the following page, giving the number of high schools in North Dakota at different periods.² There is, however, no way of determining how much of this increase in first- and second-class schools has been due to the desire to get more state aid and how much is due to the wish of the communities to improve their high schools. There can be

² *8th Annual Report of Inspector of High Schools, North Dakota, 1915*, page 42.

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Year	No. first-class schools	No. second-class schools	No. third-class schools
1899	9	7	8
1904	21	6	11
1909	38	17	30
1914	41	29	53

no reasonable doubt that the desire to secure more assistance from the state is a factor in all the states having this type of law.

2. *Encouraging the Development of Other than Four-year High Schools*

Three ways may be suggested for obtaining the needed training for the adolescents of poorer communities: (1) sending them to a standard four-year high school whence they are able to return home only once in a while; (2) transporting them each day to such a school; (3) maintaining standard high schools of one, two, or three years in the community, then sending them to a standard four-year high school. The first method might be satisfactory for older pupils of high school age, but it is very undesirable to have boys and girls in the early adolescent years away from the home environment. The second method is feasible at the present time only to a limited extent. As transportation facilities are improved, the number of communities that can be served by this means will increase. It would seem, therefore, that we must employ the third method, that of offering courses of one, two, or three years' training in many communities. The necessity for controlling the tendency to establish many small and ineffective high schools when a few central schools

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could better serve the needs of a territory has been discussed in the preceding chapter.

Besides those states giving different sums for different classes of high schools, most states use the same basis of aid to all schools no matter what the classification, so that the establishment of other than four-year schools is encouraged. Maine is an illustration: a school of class C may receive as much as a school of class A.³ In California, however, the state will not assist other than four-year schools, a feature of the law that has been condemned by Cubberley.⁴ This defect in the law is partly offset by the development of union district high schools in that state and by the provision made for tuition and transportation.

3. *Encouraging an Increase in Attendance*

In the distribution of the general state school funds 8 states make use of attendance as a factor.⁵ It has been thought by many that the distribution of school moneys on the basis of attendance tends to keep a larger number of pupils in school. Doubtless it does have some such effect, but it is a question whether school officers make as much of an effort to keep pupils in school, or whether as many parents send their children to school in order that the district may receive a larger sum from the state, as has been thought to be the case.

Probably those states that provided high school aid upon this basis had more or less clearly in mind the notion of encouraging a larger number of pupils to get

³ *Laws of Maine Relating to Public Schools, 1915*, pages 26, 27.

⁴ *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. X, No. 19, pages 18, 19.

⁵ *Educational Survey of Wyoming*, page 92. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 29.

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a high school training. Even if we grant that the distribution of the general state school funds on the basis of attendance has either actually caused more pupils to go to school than would otherwise be the case, or has been an incentive to school officers to enforce the compulsory education laws, we cannot conclude that a similar law would have the same effect upon high school attendance. In the first place very few of the compulsory education laws cover more than the eight years of the elementary school,⁶ so that state high school aid cannot have much effect on high school attendance through stimulating an enforcement of those laws. In the second place, adolescents, with their greater spirit of independence and demand for results commensurate with the energy expended, are not so apt, as may possibly be the case with children, to be persuaded either by parents or school officers to attend school because it will give the district a larger revenue from the state. In the third place, several of the states using this method have such laws that they are not likely to have any far-reaching effect in attracting pupils to school, even granting that it is possible to do this through state aid. Thus, since Rhode Island gives assistance for only 50 pupils and since all but 3 of the high schools in that state have over that number,⁷ the law cannot now have much effect in stimulating attendance. In New York, in 1912-13, only about 74 cents per pupil was given on the basis of attend-

⁶ *Compulsory School Attendance*, pages 7, 28-38. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1914, No. 2. According to the table given here, 9 states set 15 years as the necessary age, 16 set 16 years, 1 sets 18 years. Of these, however, only 4 have such limits as to include more than 8 years, the time usually required to complete the traditional elementary school course.

⁷ See pages 64, 65.

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ance, a sum hardly sufficient to have much effect.⁸ In South Carolina state aid is not given unless there is an enrollment above the seventh grade of at least 25. In the smaller communities this regulation is apt to stimulate the community to get a fair proportion of its adolescents into school, but elsewhere it can have little effect. The same may be said of Maryland, where there must be an average attendance of at least 70 in a first-class school and at least 30 in a second-class school.

In other states the conditions are such that high school attendance may be stimulated through state aid if such aid does have any effect. In North Carolina attendance of at least 20 is necessary to get state aid, but there is an additional provision that, in giving to a school money above the minimum, attendance above the minimum required shall be one of the factors considered. If this law is administered in such a way that more assistance is given as the percentage of persons in the community of high school age are in attendance at the high school, there will probably be real activity on the part of school officers in urging pupils to attend. In California about \$10 per pupil is distributed on the basis of attendance, and in Utah the allotment in 1913-14 was \$15.37 per pupil. In Washington between \$20 and \$25 was given for attendance in 1913-14.⁹ In New Jersey the amount given for attendance will vary in different counties, but at the average rate for 1914-15 it should have been about \$13

⁸ In that year there were 157,891 high school pupils and \$116,148.51 was given on the basis of attendance. See *Annual Report New York Education Department, 1914*, pages 140, 854.

⁹ *22d Biennial Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Washington, 1914*, page 63.

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per pupil;¹⁰ in Vermont it will vary from \$5 to \$20 per pupil, depending upon the wealth of the community.

The impossibility of determining in an accurate way, through such data as are now available, the influence that the best laws have upon high school attendance becomes clear when it is remembered (1) that there is a growing desire on the part of pupils to get a high school education without regard to the money given by the state for attendance; (2) that in California, New York, New Jersey, and Vermont there is some form of free tuition law which has much influence upon the increase in attendance; and (3) that in Utah there has for a few years been a county-unit organization in at least part of the counties. Doubtless it would be possible to collect the information in the different states that would show exactly the effect that state aid has upon attendance, but so far as the writer has been able to discover such data are not now in existence.

4. *Encouraging Improvement in the Teaching Force*

A plan that puts a premium upon the employment of better teachers is to be commended, since the effectiveness of a school depends upon this factor much more than upon any other. To a less degree the same may be said about the employment of a larger number of teachers, since an increase in the teaching force improves the chances for individual instruction and for the departmentalizing of the work of the school. Eight states, by basing high school aid upon the cost of instruction or the number of teachers, encourage to a

¹⁰ The average per-pupil rate was approximately 7.1 cents per day in 1914-15 (see page 74). Counting 180 days to the year would give a per-pupil rate of \$12.78.

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greater or less degree the improvement of the teaching force. A ninth state, Minnesota, employs the teacher basis in aiding high school departments in state-graded schools.

In nearly all these states there is some sort of a limiting clause that prevents the state from giving full recognition to this factor. Thus, in Maine two thirds the instruction but not to exceed \$500 is given, while in Wisconsin one half the instruction but not to exceed \$500 is granted district high schools. The effect of this limitation has been discussed on page 75. The same discussion shows that in the town and union district high schools of Wisconsin the effect of the limitation is not as great because a larger maximum is set. In Maryland aid is given for a certain number of teachers only, as follows: in first-grade high schools, 1 principal, 3 academic teachers, 2 vocational teachers, not to exceed \$2500 to any school; in second-grade schools, 1 principal, 1 academic teacher, 1 vocational teacher. In Tennessee no school may receive more than one third its expenditures and no county more than one fiftieth the entire high school fund. Minnesota state-graded schools receive \$600, \$100 for each grade teacher employed in excess of 4, and \$250 for each high school teacher, but not more than \$1300 in all. The North Carolina aid law provides that one of the factors in giving assistance beyond the minimum shall be the number and the qualifications of the teachers employed, so that there is a direct stimulus to improvement in this direction. In South Carolina a maximum is set for schools having a different number of teachers, the highest being \$700 for schools with 4 or more. In Idaho rural high schools only are aided, though assistance is given for all teachers in schools of that type.

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Only in New Jersey is aid given for all high school teachers.

5. *Encouraging an Increase in the Amount Raised by the Local Community*

Only one state, Virginia, now determines the amount of aid granted a high school upon the basis of the amount given by the local community. The limits are \$250 and \$400. In 1913, North Carolina had a similar law, the limits being \$250 and \$500. In 1913-14, less than 30 per cent of all North Carolina state-aided high schools received the maximum.¹¹

6. *Encouraging the Development of Rural High Schools*

Wisconsin and Idaho have laws that tend to encourage rural high schools. Wisconsin does this by setting the maximum that may be given to a town or union district high school much higher than in the case of district high schools. The law has not had the effect that might have been expected, since only 45 of the 303 high schools receiving aid belonged to this class in 1912-13.¹² Idaho gives special high school aid to rural high schools only. In 1912-13, after the law had been in effect about 4 years, 21 of the 123 high schools in the state reported as rural high schools.¹³

¹¹ *7th Annual Report of State Inspector of Public High Schools, North Carolina, 1914*, pages 42-48.

¹² *16th Biennial Report of Department of Public Instruction, Wisconsin, 1912-14*, pages 95-107.

¹³ *1st Biennial Report of State Board of Education, Idaho, 1913-14*, page 264.

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7. *Encouraging All-Round Development by Using Several Factors*

Through the setting of minimum standards, practically all the states stimulate more or less the development of various aspects of high school work. The factors usually emphasized are some or all of: length of school year; length of recitation periods; number of units required for graduation; nature of the program of studies; number of teachers; library and laboratory facilities; buildings and grounds. In these cases, however, the development is stimulated by state aid only to that extent that will satisfy the minimum standards of the state. South Carolina and North Carolina go further than most states by putting into the statutes several factors that the state board shall take into consideration. Thus, South Carolina mentions the number of teachers, the attendance of non-residents, and satisfactory work in agriculture, manual training, and domestic science. Under the general authority given it, the state board has set standards in regard to such matters as length of school year; length of recitation periods; number of teachers in elementary school and in high school; proportion of entire salary schedule given high school teachers; minimum number of pupils in any grade; use of state-adopted textbooks, etc.¹⁴ In North Carolina the law mentions specifically: minimum attendance; average daily attendance above the minimum; number of teachers; grade and character of work. The latter factor, particularly, gives much latitude to the board in emphasizing those phases of secondary education that need to be developed. (See pages 89, 90 for details.)

¹⁴ *General School Law of South Carolina, 1916*, pages 65, 66.

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From the theoretical point of view, at least, each of the foregoing methods of rewarding effort is worth while, though it is quite evident that in certain cases limiting clauses prevent these laws from having the stimulating influence they otherwise might. As to which of these methods is most valuable it is impossible to say without knowing the situation in the state where it is desired to stimulate high school development. In a state where there are few strong four-year high schools and many schools of lower classification, it may be most important to stimulate the development of schools of the first grade in order that higher ideals of secondary training may be established and promulgated. In another state it is quite possible that fewer schools should be maintained and that those should have better teachers and equipment. In a third state some plan may be needed that will bring a larger percentage of adolescents to school. In a fourth, rural high schools may be the greatest need. But while it is possible that in a certain state there is just one dominant and pressing need, it is more likely that there will be several phases of secondary education that should be improved, so that the emphasis of some one factor may cause an overstimulation in that direction and a neglect in other directions.

North Carolina and South Carolina, by giving to the state board the power to give aid based upon a number of items in school progress, offer the surest mode of securing a well-balanced development beyond the minimum requirements of the state. Such laws have the advantage not only of being able to consider several factors in school progress instead of only one or two factors, but of making it possible, by vesting the specific mode of evaluation with a state board, to

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change the emphasis on the factors from time to time as educational developments in the state make such changes desirable.

C. A MORE FLEXIBLE METHOD, INVOLVING FUNDAMENTAL AND CONSTANT FACTORS, SUGGESTED

What is needed, then, is a plan that will stimulate as many communities as possible to do more than is required by the minimum standards of the state; that will encourage this additional effort to take the form of an all-round development rather than the emphasizing of only one or two factors; that will measure, with as fine a scale as conditions make desirable, the extent of the energy expended for this improvement; and that will furnish a basis for rewarding this effort, so far as is feasible, according to its degree.

At this point it is necessary to define more clearly two terms, "need" and "effort," that have been employed from time to time in this investigation to indicate two distinct phases of school finance. By defining the terms, it is proposed to give them a more scientific meaning than they ordinarily have had when applied to problems of this sort.

As previously indicated, "need" has been used in the preceding chapters to indicate the amount required by a community for maintaining minimum standard schools over and above that which is raised by a tax rate equal to the average rate of the entire state for the same purpose. If 8 mills is the average rate required by all communities in a state to meet the minimum standards, a community that must levy 10 mills to accomplish the same purpose may be thought of as being in need to the extent of 2 mills. Having thus determined the extent of the need of the community, the

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county or the state can then proceed to do as much in the way of meeting this need as its resources or its methods of distribution will allow. Illustrations of this procedure, not carried to its logical conclusion of giving all the aid and exactly the aid needed, but showing methods feasible under the present conditions, are to be found in the tuition aid law of New Hampshire (see page 171), the transportation aid law of Massachusetts (see page 175), and the general aid laws of Missouri and Minnesota (see pages 81, 85).

"Effort" may be thought of as the energy expended by a community in providing better schools than are required by the minimum standards of the state.

Two kinds of effort should be recognized: (1) energy expended in raising the school standards above those of the state when such expenditure will *not* bring its tax rate for schools above the state average; (2) energy expended in raising the standards above those of the state when such expenditure *will* bring its tax rate above the state average. The first form of effort is a much lower form than the second, since in the first case the community is still carrying a burden smaller than the average for the state. As a matter of justice, aid should not be given for the first kind of effort until this effort makes the rate levied higher than the average for the state. Aid should then be given, not on the basis of the entire rate levied for effort, but on the rate levied above the state average. This will place all communities on a par.

With effort defined in this way we are able to measure as accurately as we please its extent in any community and to reward that community as the state educational policy makes desirable. Under such a plan of stimulating effort the state board of education, or possibly

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the county board coöperating with the state board and operating under its general direction, may determine what aspects of high school work should be improved and accordingly specify that assistance will be given for an improvement in number, qualifications, and working conditions of teachers employed or for improvement in the library and laboratory facilities or for adding a certain curriculum to the work of the school. The phases of work to be emphasized could thus be changed from time to time according as it seemed necessary for improving the effectiveness of the education of the youth of the state. The amount of assistance to be given to each school could be determined in some such way as this: (1) decide how large a sum should be set aside for the whole state for stimulating high schools to develop beyond the minimum standards of the state; (2) find out how much of an effort, as measured by the tax levy, is being made by the different communities; (3) decide that for each fraction of a mill, say one tenth, levied in this way up to a certain maximum, say five tenths of a mill, a certain sum or a certain percentage of the amount raised will be refunded by the state.

CHAPTER EIGHT

FREE HIGH SCHOOL PRIVILEGES

A. GENERAL METHODS NOW EMPLOYED

SINCE most localities cannot afford to maintain a standard four-year high school and since many cannot afford to maintain a standard secondary school of any grade, some provision must be made whereby all who wish may secure a minimum standard high school training. This involves, under present conditions, the adoption of four policies.

1. *Standard High Schools*

All cities and larger towns are able to maintain standard four-year high schools, and most of them do so. It is the policy of a very few states to *require* certain communities to maintain them.¹ Such compulsory laws make certain the development of secondary schools in the larger communities.

2. *Standard High School Courses*

While the smaller towns and rural districts can seldom maintain four-year high schools, many of them are able to do some high school work. Recognizing this, a number of states have provided for a classification of their high schools so that such communities will be stimulated by the thought of doing standard work which will compare in quality with that done in

¹ "Each town shall maintain a high school, or, if a town does not maintain a high school, it shall furnish higher instruction for its advanced pupils at a high school, seminary, or academy to be selected by the parents, or guardians of a pupil. . . ."—*Vermont School Laws, 1915*, page 41. See also *Revised Laws Relating to Public Instruction, Massachusetts, 1915*, page 15.

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four-year schools. For example, Pennsylvania provides for three classes: four-year, three-year, and two-year schools.² The *Nebraska High School Manual*, issued by authority of law, gives four programs, one for each of the four years of the high school course.

3. *Uniting of Small Units for High School Purposes*

Free high school privileges are extended in many states through the establishment of high schools by union districts, townships, combined districts and townships, union townships, combined parts of townships, counties, combined sections of counties, and combined towns or cities and districts. Over three fourths of the states have laws providing for one or more such high school districts. The coöperation of these contiguous units makes possible the establishment of better schools and often at a lower rate of taxation than where each unit works alone.

4. *Free Tuition, Transportation, and Maintenance*

The pupils of communities that do not maintain a standard four-year high school should have the privilege of securing a complete secondary education, if we are to insure the practical application of the principle of a free secondary school that has been so important in the development of the present-day high school. This situation may be met by providing transportation to high schools in other districts, free tuition in those high schools, and, where transportation is not feasible, room and board.

² *School Law of Pennsylvania, 1915*, section 1701.

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B. FREE TUITION

Different states use different methods for providing free tuition. The present situation in all the states may be summarized and the methods in use may be analyzed in accordance with the following classification. The basis that has been adopted for classifying the laws is one in which provision for such privileges free of all cost to the pupil is considered to be of first importance, but one in which the equalization between some local unit and the state of the burden for this purpose is at the same time possible and desirable. The implications of this basis will become clear as the analysis proceeds.

The classification is as follows:

- I. Tuition paid in whole or in part by the pupil.
 - a. The pupil must pay all.
 - b. The district (or other local unit) *may* pay the tuition.
 - c. The pupil pays part because the law limits the amount of the tuition fee or the conditions under which it may be paid.
- II. Tuition entirely free.
 - a. The district (or other local unit) pays all.
 - b. The state pays all through free tuition in state-aided high schools.
 - c. The state and the district cooperate in paying all.

Naturally these different methods vary in the degree of success in accomplishing their purpose. The primary object of this chapter will be, therefore, to analyze these methods and evaluate their results.

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1. *Payment Entirely by the Pupil*

About one third of the states have no free high school tuition law.³ While it is true that in some of these states a large number of eighth-grade graduates do attend a high school in another district, it is safe to say that the percentage of pupils doing so is smaller than would be the case were the tuition free. Statistics from Connecticut show what such laws may do. The law in that state was passed in 1897. During the school year 1896-97, 419 non-resident pupils attended high schools;⁴ during 1897-98, the first year of the free tuition law, the number was 593,⁵ an increase of 41.5 per cent. However, of the 593 only 136 fulfilled the conditions of the law for receiving state aid for tuition.⁶ From 1897-98 to 1911-12, the number of towns paying the high school tuition increased from 32 to 88.⁷ In 1911-12, the number attending non-local high schools was 11 per cent of the whole high school registration.⁸ These results were secured in

³ It should be noted that in one state, at least, it is still possible by law to make a charge for high school attendance. Thus, the Alabama law states that in county high schools a matriculation fee of not more than \$2.50 may be charged each pupil entering the high school. (See *General Public School Laws of Alabama, 1915*, page 72.) According to the Alabama School Report for 1914, pages 448-450, every county high school charged such a fee in 1914, the revenue from this source being \$22,070.75 for all the schools. In Louisiana, until 1916, from fifty cents to \$1.50 per year could be charged for pupils in any public school, this amount "to be used in providing the necessary fuel and other comforts of the school." (See *Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1914*, page 26.) The 1916 law made such charges illegal. (See *Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1916*, page 118.)

⁴ *Report of Connecticut Board of Education, 1896-97*, page 91.

⁵ *Report of Connecticut Board of Education, 1897-98*, page 103.

⁶ *Ibid.*, page 150.

⁷ *Report of Connecticut Board of Education, 1912-13*, page 198.

⁸ *Ibid.*, page 13.

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spite of the fact that the law was not mandatory.

It should be remembered that of the states having no high school tuition law many secure some extension of high school privileges through the establishment of union district, township, union township, or county high schools. It is impossible to state definitely just how important these union schools are as a factor in extending high school privileges. The following data are, however, suggestive. In Alabama, in 1915, there were 53 county high schools.⁹ In Colorado, in 1914, 19 of the 117 high schools were county and 21 were union high schools.¹⁰ In Maryland, in 1911-12, there were 58 high schools in 23 counties. All public high schools are county high schools. 6 of the counties had no high school of the first grade; 3 had no high school of either first or second grade.¹¹ In Mississippi there were 40 county agricultural high schools in 1914.¹² In Montana, in 1911-12, 15 of the 34 accredited high schools were county schools with 1730 of the 4252 pupils.¹³ In Tennessee, in 1911-12, there were 111 county high schools in 46 of the 96 counties. There were 7546 pupils enrolled.¹⁴ In 1914, New Mexico had 14 county high schools in 10 of the 26 counties.¹⁵

⁹ *Annual Report of Department of Education, Alabama, 1914*, page 35.

¹⁰ *20th Biennial Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Colorado, 1913-14*, page 37.

¹¹ *46th Annual Report of Department of Public Instruction, Maryland, 1912*, pages 85-88.

¹² Information from State Department of Public Instruction.

¹³ *12th Biennial Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Montana, 1912*, pages 19, 20.

¹⁴ *Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Tennessee, 1912*, pages 228, 231.

¹⁵ *Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1914*, page 7.

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Union district high schools usually succeed fairly well in providing free high school privileges within their territory, because in organizing them special thought is given to securing such a combination of districts that access can be had by all to the school. The same is true of the township high school. In few states, however, has the organization of such units proceeded far enough to afford free privileges to a large percentage of those needing a high school education.

In a small county where access can easily be had to a standard county high school, or in a larger county where there are several high schools maintained by the county or where either transportation or maintenance is provided by the county, free high school privileges may be as certain as where the privileges are gained through the payment of tuition. Certainly it is true that under the most favorable conditions high schools maintained under a county-unit organization, besides providing a more effective administrative scheme, are a better means of offering secondary school opportunities than are several of the less effective forms of free tuition. The classification in this chapter may, therefore, seem unfair to some states such as Maryland, Tennessee, and New Mexico, where many counties are striving earnestly to solve the free high school problem. This distinction between states providing free privileges partly by tuition and those providing it by county or union district high school is made solely to clarify the discussion concerning methods of attaining the desired result of offering a free high school education to all who wish it.

It is quite likely that in the future, when country roads are in good condition, when the automobile has become a common means for transporting children, and

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when larger administrative units for schools are recognized by all as a means of securing greater educational efficiency, the union school under county administration will become the most important and the best way of furnishing high school opportunities (see Chapter V). At present, however, it is certain that other means, more easily obtained, must be considered.

2. *Permissive Tuition Laws*

A few states provide that free tuition *may* be granted. This is the case in Connecticut, where the state will, when certain conditions are fulfilled, reimburse the town to the extent of two thirds of the tuition paid but not more than \$30 per year for any one pupil.¹⁶ In 1911-12 there were only 7 towns that did not maintain high schools or pay at least part of the tuition in other high schools.¹⁷ The Barnes law of Kansas provides that counties in which there are no county high schools may vote a county tax for the support of all high schools in the state that maintain a standard course of study and admit pupils free.¹⁸ In 1913, 39 counties had such a tax.¹⁹ Besides the Barnes law

¹⁶ *Laws Relating to Schools, 1916*, sections 77-80. This law places upon the school visitors the responsibility of granting or refusing the payment of tuition. Information furnished by the Connecticut State Board of Education shows that sometimes the school visitors do not grant the necessary permission and that sometimes the visitors agree to pay only part of the fee. Most towns in which the latter course is adopted are close to cities in which the tuition fees are large.

¹⁷ *Report of Board of Education, Connecticut, 1912-13*, page 13.

¹⁸ *Laws Relating to Common Schools of Kansas, 1913*, sections 397-412. For a more complete discussion of this so-called Barnes law, see Chapter V, page 105.

¹⁹ *19th Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Kansas, 1914*, page 221.

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there are several statutes dealing with the tuition problem. There is provision whereby free high school privileges may be secured through the establishment of township and county high schools.²⁰ In 1913, 26 of the 105 counties besides those having the Barnes law had county high schools.²¹ In 1915 a law was passed permitting counties which have not made other provision for free high school tuition to levy a tax upon all parts of the county not included in a high school district for the payment of tuition at the rate of \$1 per week for each pupil.²² This bill repealed a former law permitting districts to pay high school tuition. The North Carolina high school law provides that the county board of education may make an agreement with the trustees of a public high school in the county for free instruction. If there is an average attendance at this high school of at least 10 pupils from outside the local district, the high school is entitled to aid on the same basis as the regular state-aided high schools.²³ In 1913-14 there were 6 high schools operating under this law.

Permissive tuition laws are, of course, suggestive of what ought to be done, but whether such laws are effective will depend upon the educational sentiment of the people. In Connecticut, at least, the permissive law seems now to have almost as much effect as if it were compulsory; but it must be admitted that permissive laws are too likely to have little practical influence. On the other hand, it must be remembered

²⁰ *Laws Relating to Common Schools of Kansas, 1915*, sections 393-422, 435; 436; 453-465.

²¹ *19th Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Kansas, 1914*, page 113.

²² House Bill No. 578.

²³ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, page 51, section 6.

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that a compulsory law is worth little unless a large proportion of the people believe in it. The fact that most of the states adopting tuition legislation recently — e. g., Iowa, Illinois, Idaho, West Virginia — have made the payment compulsory, and that the great majority of all states having tuition laws also make the payment compulsory, indicates the general tendency.

3. *Partially Free Tuition*

There are three forms of this method:

1. One form of partially free tuition is that providing for the payment up to a certain rate or amount by some school unit. In some communities this rate or amount permits the payment of all the tuition; in many communities it does not. In New York, city and union district high schools receive from the state \$20 for each non-resident pupil given free instruction. For cities whose customary charge is larger than this sum a special provision grants that the city "may charge the difference between the sum regularly apportioned by the state and the city's or district's customary charge for the tuition of non-resident pupils, provided the balance of such customary charge shall have been legally assumed and provided for by the school district in which such pupils are resident or shall have been paid by the parents or guardians of such pupils."²⁴ In South Dakota the district is required to pay the tuition up to \$2 per month, while any

²⁴ Circular of State Department of Education, September 1, 1915. Also *New York Education Law, 1914*, paragraph 493 (6). Before 1915 payment could not be made when more than \$20 was charged for tuition unless the remainder was paid by the district from which the pupil came. This excess may now be paid by the parents or guardians.

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amount in excess of this must be paid by the pupil. The tuition charge may not exceed the per capita cost of maintaining the school.²⁵ If the pupil comes from an unorganized school district, the fee is to be paid by the county.²⁶ Michigan limits the amount the district must pay to \$20 per pupil unless the district votes to increase this.²⁷ In Iowa the district pays \$3.50 per month plus the cost of free textbooks where they are furnished, while the parents pay the remainder of the cost if there is any.²⁸ Maine provides that the town shall pay the tuition up to \$30 per pupil and that two thirds of all expended by the town, not exceeding \$500, shall be refunded by the state.²⁹ In Delaware, the State Board of Education is required to select certain graded schools which may be attended by pupils of school age living in districts not maintaining graded schools. For this attendance the state is to pay 20 cents per pupil per day. The city of Wilmington is not held to this requirement, and if it does admit non-residents, it may charge what it thinks proper. If the city does admit outside pupils, it may receive the regular sum from the state and this sum is to be deducted from the charge made the pupil.³⁰ Vermont requires a town to maintain a first-class high school or to furnish

²⁵ *School Laws of South Dakota, 1911*, section 147.

²⁶ *Laws Enacted by the Legislature of 1915*, section 108a (2).

²⁷ *General School Laws of Michigan, 1913*, section 370.

²⁸ *School Laws of Iowa, 1915*, section 2733a 1.

²⁹ *Laws of Maine Relating to Public Schools, 1915*, section 85. If the pupil lives in an unorganized township in which schools are regularly maintained, he "may attend any secondary school in the state . . . in such case the tuition of such youth, not to exceed \$30 annually, shall be paid by the state under such provisions and regulations as may be made by the state superintendent and approved by the governor and council." Section 119.

³⁰ *School Laws for Free Public Schools of Delaware, 1913*, pages 51-54.

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tuition up to \$36 per year. Upon vote of the town a higher rate may be paid. The state then refunds a certain percentage of the tuition, depending upon the property valuation of the community.³¹ The New Hampshire law requires towns not maintaining high schools to provide tuition up to \$40 per pupil per year. Inasmuch as some few schools charge more than this,³² tuition is not always free. The state refunds a certain percentage of the tuition on the basis of the tax rate levied.³³ The Vermont and New Hampshire laws are illustrations of the serious efforts now being made by several states to base the distribution of their school funds upon the needs of the various communities. Later reference will be made to this aspect of the free tuition problem.

2. A second form of law providing partially free tuition is that requiring the payment of the tuition except when the district is unable to maintain its elementary school properly. In Nebraska the district pays \$1 per week to the high school attended unless the district is unable to maintain a school for 9 months after levying the maximum tax rate of 35 mils.³⁴ In Ohio, districts maintaining a second- or a third-grade high school are not required to pay the tuition if the district is levying the maximum rate and all funds are needed for the support of its schools. Other districts or local units must pay the tuition.³⁵ The law also pro-

³¹ *Vermont School Laws, 1915*, pages 41, 42. The maximum rate was recently raised from \$24.

³² Statement from Department of Public Instruction in personal letter, October 27, 1911.

³³ *Laws of New Hampshire Relating to Public Schools, 1915*, pages 69-71.

³⁴ *Nebraska School Laws, 1915*, sections 114-119.

³⁵ *School Laws of Ohio, 1915*, sections 7747-7752.

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

vides: (1) transportation to high schools under certain conditions; (2) that a board not having a high school may enter into an agreement with one or more boards of education maintaining such schools for the schooling of all its high school pupils, and when this is done the board is exempt from paying at other high schools the tuition of pupils living within 3 miles of the high school; (3) the tuition may be paid from either the tuition or contingent funds, or a special levy of not to exceed 2 mills may be made over and above the rate allowed for school purposes; (4) no board of education may collect tuition "unless it is maintaining a regularly organized high school with a course of study extending over not less than 2 years and consisting mainly of branches higher than those in which the pupil is examined."³⁶

3. A third form is found in South Carolina, where the law provides that any state-aided high school must enroll free of charge any pupil coming from the county in which the school is located, or from any adjoining county.³⁷ In Arkansas a similar arrangement was until recently in existence, with the additional provision that pupils in counties having no state-aided high schools might attend one in another county and have the fee of \$1.50 per month paid by their home districts unless those districts are unable to maintain their com-

³⁶ There is another interesting provision as follows: "Should pupils residing in the district (providing a third-grade high school) prefer not to attend such third-grade high school, the board of education of such districts shall be required to pay the tuition of such pupils at any first-grade high school for four years, or at any second-grade high school for three years and a first-grade high school for one year." Section 7748. This was enacted to protect pupils in districts where a very poor high school was provided merely to evade the tuition law.

³⁷ *General School Laws of South Carolina, 1916*, section 1812 i.

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mon schools for 6 months each year.³⁸ In 1915 the high school aid law was declared unconstitutional, so that these provisions in regard to payment of tuition are no longer effective. In 1911-12 there were 3 counties in this state without state-aided high schools.³⁹

In general, laws such as these are better than those that have been considered thus far, in that the high school privileges are likely to be more certain than under permissive tuition laws, and more extensive in actual influence than where they are dependent upon the establishment of union high schools. The chief weakness of this type of law is that it provides only partially free tuition. In some of the states the burden upon the pupils is not likely to be very heavy. This seems to be the case in Delaware, New Hampshire, New York, and Vermont especially. The coöperation of the state and the local unit, evidenced by the state-aid provisions cited in some of the cases above, increases the effectiveness of these tuition laws.

4. *Tuition Paid Entirely by Some Local Unit*

This is the first of three methods by which tuition is made entirely free. In Arizona⁴⁰ the unit for this purpose is the district; in Indiana,⁴¹ the school corpora-

³⁸ *Digest of Laws Relating to Free Schools in Arkansas, 1914*, sections 7699-1, 7699-y.

³⁹ *22d Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1911-12*, page 25.

⁴⁰ *School Laws of Arizona, 1913*, paragraph 2793. The wording of this law is such as to cause some obscurity as to whether tuition is provided in certain vocational departments only or in all departments of a high school. However, the state superintendent, under date of May 30, 1914, says that in practice all departments are included.

⁴¹ *School Law of Indiana, 1911*, sections 219-223.

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

tion, usually the township; in Oregon,⁴² Kentucky,⁴³ and Illinois,⁴⁴ the county. Idaho,⁴⁵ Texas,⁴⁶ West Virginia,⁴⁷ and Wisconsin⁴⁸ also have this type of law.

By this method one goal has been reached — tuition

⁴² *Oregon School Laws, 1915*, paragraphs 398-408.

⁴³ *Kentucky School Laws, 1912*, paragraph 125. According to this law each county board of education was required to establish one or more county high schools by the year 1914. Under the law it is possible for the county board to make arrangements with a first-class high school in the county to furnish free tuition or to unite with the governing authorities of any city or town "for the purpose of establishing a high school for the joint use of the city or town and such county, and unite with such authorities for the purpose of maintaining such high school if one is already in existence." Under the latter arrangement "the total expense of conducting such high school, including estimate of the six per cent per annum on all investments in buildings, grounds, and equipment, shall be prorated between the two boards of education in proportion to the enrollment respectively of county pupils and pupils residing in said town, city, or graded school district, for the term of the first half of the session and likewise for the term of the second half of the school session, the entire session being in no case less than eight school months; provided, however, that said contract tuition rate shall in no case exceed the rate charged for other pupils."

⁴⁴ *School Laws of Illinois*, enacted by the 49th General Assembly, 1915, pages 15, 16.

⁴⁵ *School Laws of Idaho, 1915*, sections 196-199.

⁴⁶ *Revised School Laws of Texas, 1913*, section 144. The law is not quite clear whether or not the providing of free tuition is compulsory. The state superintendent of public instruction writes, October 20, 1914, ". . . that according to the ruling of this Department, section 144, School Laws of Texas, makes it compulsory for the transfer and free tuition of pupils in the high school grades where the home district of the pupils does not offer work in the high school grades."

⁴⁷ *School Law of West Virginia, 1915*, section 30-a. It appears from the reading of the law that districts maintaining a high school of less than four years are not required to pay the tuition of pupils until a four years' course is completed, but may do so.

⁴⁸ *Laws of Wisconsin Relating to Common Schools, 1915*, sections 496j-496o.

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has been provided without cost to the pupil. But, while we are seeking this goal, other considerations must be kept in mind. It will be generally conceded that free tuition ought not be secured at the expense of the elementary school. Will the requirement that the district or other unit must pay all the tuition have such an effect? Obviously this will depend upon the conditions under which the law is carried out. If the unit paying the tuition is small or comparatively poor or has unusual educational demands upon it, the unit must sacrifice somewhat the efficiency of the elementary school in order to meet the requirements of the law or must bear a heavier school burden. As the unit increases in size or wealth or its educational needs decrease, the danger of affecting the work of the elementary school decreases. There can, however, be no doubt that in some states there are districts that cannot support a standard elementary school, much less do this and pay the tuition of its eighth-grade graduates. Thus, State Superintendent Bishop of Nebraska reported in 1910 that there were 387 districts in 35 counties that were unable to maintain a school for 5 months when levying the maximum tax.⁴⁹ It will be remembered that the law in that state protects such districts by relieving them of paying high school tuition. Superintendent Blair of Illinois reports that the free tuition law formerly in force in that state was objectionable in that it was found that many districts could not pay the tuition of their eighth-grade graduates and at the same time maintain a good elementary school.⁵⁰ As a result a new law was adopted in 1915

⁴⁹ *21st Biennial Report of State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Nebraska, 1910*, pages 8, 9.

⁵⁰ *Educational Press Bulletin*, June, 1915, page 2.

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which placed the burden upon the whole county.⁵¹ In 1915 Kansas also repealed a law which had made it possible for the district to pay the tuition and substituted one making it possible to levy a county fund.⁵² This tendency to adopt a larger unit for the payment of high school tuition is certainly a step in the right direction.

The new Illinois law has met some opposition, particularly because the tuition, being paid from the county's share of the state distributive fund before being distributed to the different districts, makes a form of double taxation for districts already maintaining high schools.⁵³ To the present writer it seems that this objection may be due to two things: (1) an inadequate conception of the state distributive fund as an equalizing fund; and (2) the probable lack of methods for distributing funds so as to bring about real equalization.⁵⁴

A defect in several of the laws of this type is the

⁵¹ Compare reference in footnote 44 with *School Law of Illinois, 1914*, page 113. Superintendent Blair has also pointed out other difficulties in the old law, as follows: (1) The definition of an eighth-grade graduate was obscure because some counties did not give examinations and because some boards of education would not give their pupils a certificate of graduation from the eighth grade; (2) the law provided that tuition should be paid only to high schools offering a four-year course; (3) the law placed the burden of securing the approval of the local board of education upon the parent and the burden of collecting the tuition upon the high school attended. See *Educational Press Bulletin*, June, 1915, page 2.

⁵² Compare *Laws of Common Schools of Kansas, 1913*, section 363, with *House Bill No. 578, 1915*.

⁵³ See *The School Review*, XXIII, pages 638, 639, and *School News*, XXX, pages 53, 54. It would appear that the new law is not exactly satisfactory to the state school officials. For the history of the law see *Educational Press Bulletin*, July, 1915.

⁵⁴ Since the above statements concerning the Illinois law were

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setting of a maximum tuition rate. In Arizona ⁵⁵ it is \$3 per month; in Idaho, \$3 per month except in high schools maintaining departments of agriculture, home economics, manual training, or other vocational work without state assistance, where \$4 per month may be charged; in Indiana, \$4 per month; in West Virginia, \$2.50 per month; in Wisconsin, \$1 per week. What may happen is shown by a brief quotation from the 1910 report of the high school inspector of Wisconsin:

"In 1909-10 the total enrollment in the four-year free high schools as reported was 27,714; the enrollment of non-residents was 8014, or nearly 29 per cent of the whole. The total cost of instruction alone was \$958,543.20, or an average per pupil of \$34.59; the total amount received and due for tuition was reported as \$132,006.73, or less than 14 per cent of the whole. That is, these outside pupils paid only about one half of their proper share of the cost of instruction. Even if the special aid of \$125,000 received by these schools be added to the tuition, the entire amount will be less than their proportionate amount. The above figures take into account only the bare cost of instruction, the salaries of the teachers; the large expenditures for buildings, equipment, and general incidentals are borne entirely by the districts, and the non-residents receive the benefit without contributing anything whatever to the cost." ⁵⁶

As a result, Wisconsin has since that time raised the maximum rate from 50 cents per week to \$1 per week. In 1909 Indiana raised the rate from \$2 per month to

written, the 1915 law has been declared unconstitutional. This automatically brings the law of 1913 into effect. See *Educational Press Bulletin*, December, 1916.

⁵⁵ For references on maximum rates in these states see citations to tuition law in previous footnotes.

⁵⁶ *14th Biennial Report of Department of Public Instruction of Wisconsin, 1908-10*, page 43.

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\$4 per month. The Illinois law states that "the county superintendent of any county may limit the maximum amount of tuition per pupil in his county to \$40, but in such case shall notify all of the high schools in the county of his action before the opening of the school year."⁵⁷ Even such a liberal arrangement of the attempt to set a maximum rate seems to have met objection.⁵⁸

Such a defect in tuition laws may be remedied either by setting no maximum rate or by making the rate so high that it will in all cases cover the actual cost to the high school attended. In view of the fact that high school costs are increasing at a rather rapid rate and that legislation generally lags behind actual needs, the setting of a definite maximum appears undesirable. To the writer it would seem better to follow the plan employed by Oregon and other states, of setting the rate at the per capita cost of maintaining the high school, with added provision for appeal to the proper school official when such cost seems excessive or when the admission of non-residents unduly increases the cost to the high school. It might even be well to allow in the cost of maintenance a certain percentage on the value of the plant, according to the plan followed in Kentucky (see footnote 43, this chapter).

But such a change cannot remedy the defect inherent in this method — requiring the local district, where the district is responsible for the tuition, to assume this burden when it is unable to maintain more than a standard elementary school. In those cases where the tuition is levied by the whole county or by that part of

⁵⁷ *School Laws of Illinois*, enacted by the 49th General Assembly, 1915, page 16.

⁵⁸ *The School Review*, XXIII, page 638.

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the county not in a high school district, or when there is a county unit system as explained in Chapter V, the danger of affecting the standards of the elementary school is not so great. In some states a step has been taken beyond county assistance in this matter and the state itself has been made to contribute.

5. *Free Tuition in State-Aided High Schools*

Minnesota,⁵⁹ North Dakota,⁶⁰ Washington,⁶¹ and South Carolina⁶² employ this method. Similar provision was made in Arkansas⁶³ until the law was declared unconstitutional. In South Carolina the state-aided high schools are required to enroll free only those pupils from the county in which the school is located or from an adjoining county. The other states make no such limitation; the pupils may come from any part of the state.

In this method we have an extreme reaction to the method of requiring the district to pay all the tuition, since here the district is not required to pay any of it. The result of such a policy may be illustrated from Minnesota. In 1914-15, the average tax rate for state-graded school districts was 22.17 mills and for state high school districts was 19 mills, so that in general graded school districts would be entitled to free

⁵⁹ *Laws of Minnesota Relating to the Public School System, 1915*, section 143. In recent years this law has been modified so that pupils coming from districts not maintaining industrial or commercial courses may have their tuition paid in those courses. This tuition is paid by the state at a rate set by the state board of education not to exceed \$2.50 per month. Sections 198, 199.

⁶⁰ *General School Laws of North Dakota, 1915*, section 1431.

⁶¹ *Code of Public Instruction, Washington, 1913*, section 249.

⁶² *General School Law of South Carolina, 1916*, section 1812-i.

⁶³ *Digest of Laws Relating to Free Schools, Arkansas, 1914*, sections 7699-g, 7699-i, 7699-k.

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tuition. Nevertheless there were in that year 39.5 per cent of the graded school districts that had a rate under 19 mills. In several of these districts the rate was as low as 7 mills.⁶⁴ Such districts are of course fully able to pay high school tuition, and in fairness to the rest of the state should do so.

Another result that may follow from the use of this method is the partial or complete invalidation of the original purpose of the special state aid to high schools. It is presumed that when special aid is granted to a school, that school is worthy in itself of receiving this aid. If the school is compelled to care for any number of non-residents that may apply, it is conceivable that the special aid is aid merely for free tuition. While Wisconsin is not employing the method under discussion at this point, that state may be used to illustrate the possible effect of a law requiring each state-aided high school to receive non-residents without charge. Wisconsin is cited because it is the only state for which definite data are available. The injustice shown here will be even less than might be expected from states employing this method, since Wisconsin schools may charge a tuition fee while the others may not. The state high school inspector estimated in 1908 that the state aid of \$500 per school, which was from \$100 to \$150 more than was actually given, would, when added to the regular tuition fee, provide free tuition for about 33 pupils.⁶⁵ In 1908-9, 78 of the 268 four-year high schools had 33 or more non-resident pupils, so that in 78 high schools state aid

⁶⁴ *12th Annual Report of Inspector of State Graded Schools, Minnesota, 1915*, pages 45; 16-21.

⁶⁵ *14th Biennial Report of Department of Public Instruction, Wisconsin, 1908-10*, page 44.

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was entirely, and in other high schools partly, diverted from its purpose.⁶⁶ Since the tuition rate has been raised in that state, conditions now will be much better. Some supplementary evidence of this danger comes from Washington. The high school aid law there, it will be recalled, counts high school attendance at one and one-half times the regular rate per pupil. This is paid from the state school fund. A letter, April 23, 1914, from the state superintendent states:

"The fund which is distributed to high schools amounts to over \$400,000 annually. A number of high schools, however, are finding that their compensation from the state fund is insufficient and it is probable that some change in the system will need to be made looking to an increase in the appropriation."

Both of the difficulties incident to providing free tuition in state-aided high schools may be overcome by a proper coöperation between the state and the local unit.

6. *Coöperation of State and Local Unit*

One form of this coöperation is found in Pennsylvania,⁶⁷ where the amount given by the state to any high school must be deducted from the cost of maintaining the high school before the tuition rate may be estimated. This method has some advantage over both the other methods of furnishing entirely free tuition, in that the district is given the advantage of sharing in such funds as the state appropriates to high schools, and the high school attended is not compelled to receive non-residents at a financial loss. However, no distinction is made in the different abilities of local

⁶⁶ Calculated from statistics given in *Ibid.*, pages 166-174.

⁶⁷ *School Law of Pennsylvania, 1915*, sections 1707-1711.

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units to pay the tuition. A similar law was in existence in California until 1915.⁶⁸ In figuring the rate of tuition there, the amount per pupil received from the state was first to be deducted. A levy was then made upon all the county not included in a high school district for the payment of this tuition. In 1915 a county high school aid law was adopted by which free high school tuition was provided for all.⁶⁹

A second form of this coöperation is that in which the state allows a certain amount or percentage per pupil and the district pays the remainder. Such laws are found in Massachusetts,⁷⁰ New Jersey,⁷¹ and Rhode Island.⁷² In this connection should be mentioned Connecticut, which has a permissive law, and Maine, Delaware, New Hampshire, and Vermont, which provide partially free tuition.

In some of these states no distinction is made in the ability of different districts to pay the tuition. Maine provides that two thirds of the tuition, not exceeding \$500 to any town, shall be paid by the state. The result may be seen from the data for 1913-14 given in Table 26. The first 10 towns in the list of those receiving state aid for tuition are given. Amherst, Avon, Baldwin, and Bancroft have rates that differ little from the average rate for the state; Argyle, Atkinson, and Addison, for example, have much higher rates.

⁶⁸ *School Law of California, 1911*, sections 1758-1759.

⁶⁹ *School Law of California, 1915*, section 1764. For a full description of this law and an evaluation of its chief provisions, see pages 100-104.

⁷⁰ *Revised Laws Relating to Public Instruction, Massachusetts, 1915*, pages 16, 17.

⁷¹ *New Jersey School Law, 1914*, section 223 I (h).

⁷² *Laws of Rhode Island Relating to Education, 1910*, pages 97, 98.

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TABLE 26

Town	Cost of 73 tuition	Paid by state 73	Rate nec- essary 74 to pay town's share	Com- mon 75 school tax	Total school tax
Addison	\$144.00	\$96.00	.00022	.0060	.00622
Alna	354.40	236.26	.00063	.0032	.00383
Amherst	78.00	52.00	.00081	.0026	.00291
Argyle	68.00	40.00	.00041	.0078	.00771
Arrowdale	30.00	20.00	.00016	.0041	.00426
Atkinson	360.00	240.00	.00068	.0062	.00688
Avon	135.00	90.00	.00023	.0020	.00223
Baldwin	485.00	323.33	.00044	.0019	.00234
Bancroft	90.00	60.00	.00043	.0018	.00223
Baring	30.00	20.00	.00009	.0035	.00359
Average for state				.002676	

New Jersey has a similar type of law. There the state pays \$25 for each high school pupil whose tuition has been paid by the district.⁷⁷ Rhode Island refunds \$25 for each of the first 25 pupils in average daily attendance whose tuition has been paid by the town and \$15 for each of the second 25 pupils. Lack of equalization of the burdens similar to that shown for Maine exists in this state.⁷⁸ The average rate for the state is \$33.50, the variations being from \$14.75 to \$63.25 in 1913-14.⁷⁹ 12 of the 21 towns receiving aid for tuition had a tax rate below the state average. It is clear that, compared with all towns in the state, the 12 towns were not in need of such assistance.

The Massachusetts tuition law aims to remedy this defect by distributing the state aid on the basis of need.

⁷³ *Maine School Report, 1914*, page 198 (appendix).

⁷⁴ Calculated from data given in columns 2 and 18, pages 108-135 of *Maine School Report, 1914*.

⁷⁵ *Ibid.*, pages 108-135.

⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, page 136.

⁷⁷ *New Jersey School Law, 1914*, section 223 (h).

⁷⁸ See pages 62-65 for an evaluation of this law.

⁷⁹ *70th Annual Report of Commissioner of Public Schools, Rhode Island, 1914*, page 161.

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All towns of 500 or more families are excluded from participation. These must provide a standard high school education for their pupils. Furthermore, a town is excluded from receiving this aid if its valuation per pupil is above the valuation per pupil of the entire state. A town not excluded on either of these grounds receives a rebate of one half of the tuition paid if its valuation is \$1,000,000 or over, and all the tuition if its valuation is under that amount.⁸⁰

The effect of excluding towns on the basis of the number of families or the valuation per pupil has already been shown (pages 43-47; 49-52).

Does the provision that all towns entitled to aid shall have one half their tuition refunded if their valuation is \$1,000,000 or over, and all their tuition if it is under that amount, give aid to each according to relative need? The answer may be found in the following table:

TABLE 27 ⁸¹

Town	Valuation	Rate for all public schools	Per cent paid by state	Amount paid by state	Having rate above state average getting only 50 per cent of tuition	Having rate below state average getting 100 per cent of tuition
Acushnet . . .	\$1,098,280	\$7.89	50	\$989.06	xxx	—
Buckland . . .	1,420,026	3.96	50	480	—	—
Erving	1,065,053	4.75	50	398.95	xxx	—
Freetown . . .	1,019,320	5.13	50	577.80	xxx	—
Lakeville . . .	1,161,885	5.69	50	656.47	xxx	—
Alford	189,638	4.01	100	252.00	—	xxx
Becket	642,960	6.39	100	664.50	—	—
Bellingham . .	955,645	6.57	100	896.00	—	—
Berkley	520,513	5.92	100	1108.80	—	—
Berlin	623,265	6.54	100	1484.00	—	—
Average for state		4.54				

⁸⁰ *Revised Laws Relating to Public Instruction, Massachusetts, 1915*, pages 15-17.

⁸¹ *78th Annual Report of Board of Education of Massachusetts, 1913-14*, pages 160-168.

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Of the 10 towns in the table, 5 receive half the tuition from the state and are the first 5 in alphabetical order of 14 towns receiving this proportion; the other 5 towns in the table receive a reimbursement of 100 per cent and are the first 5 in alphabetical order of 75 towns receiving all the tuition from the state. According to this table, 4 of the first 5 towns have a tax rate for schools above the state average of \$4.54 and receive only 50 per cent of the cost of tuition from the state, while 1 of the other 5 schools has a tax rate below the state average, yet receives 100 per cent of the tuition cost. Of the 14 towns in the state receiving half the tuition, 9 have a rate above that of the average for the state; of the 75 towns in the state receiving all the tuition, 29 have a rate below that of the average for the state. This shows clearly that the present method of refunding tuition in Massachusetts, as judged by available data, is only partially successful in aiding the different towns according to need. This is evidently due to the fact that the valuation of the community gives only a partial index of the needs of a community; it neglects the factor of cost of maintaining the elementary schools. The division of communities into 2 classes tends also to make an arbitrary classification that succeeds only part of the time in accomplishing its purpose.

It is an interesting commentary that in 1913, when Massachusetts adopted a new high school transportation law, the basis adopted for refunding money expended by the towns for this purpose was the tax rate for schools. According to this law, when a town has expended not less than \$4 and less than \$5 per \$1000 of valuation for public schools, one half the expenditures for transportation are refunded; when a town has

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expended at least \$5 per \$1000 of valuation for its schools, it receives a refund of all the expenditures for transportation.⁸² Since the average tax rate for the state was, in 1913-14, \$4.54, it is seen that this new law makes the state assume all the burden when the town has a rate much above that of the state average; that the state assumes only half the burden when the town's rate is about the average of the whole state; and that the state assumes none of the burden when the rate is, approximately, less than the average for the state.

While Vermont and New Hampshire do not belong to this group of states that makes tuition entirely free in all cases, they should be mentioned as illustrations of the growing tendency to secure more and more an accurate measure of the extent to which communities should be assisted by the state. Vermont employs the same method for refunding tuition as it does for aiding high schools (see Chapter IV). It gives no aid to towns having a grand list of more than \$15,000, but other towns are graded into 4 classes on the grand-list basis, those between \$15,000 and \$10,000 receiving only \$5 for each pupil whose tuition has been paid, while towns of \$5000 or less receive \$20 per pupil.⁸³ The New Hampshire law is even more elaborate, providing for 10 groups of communities, each to receive from the state a different proportion of what has been expended for high school tuition. In order to receive a rebate a town must expend \$3.50 or more on \$1000 of valuation for schools and an average of \$16.50 on \$1000 for all

⁸² *Revised Laws Relating to Public Instruction, Massachusetts, 1915*, page 17.

⁸³ *Vermont School Laws, 1915*, pages 41, 42.

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purposes for 5 years preceding. The following division is then made:⁸⁴

If rate is \$16.50 to \$17.49, 1/10 of tuition is paid						
"	"	"	17.50 to	18.49, 2/10	"	" " "
"	"	"	18.50 to	19.49, 3/10	"	" " "
"	"	"	19.50 to	20.49, 4/10	"	" " "
"	"	"	20.50 to	21.49, 5/10	"	" " "
"	"	"	21.50 to	22.49, 6/10	"	" " "
"	"	"	22.50 to	23.49, 7/10	"	" " "
"	"	"	23.50 to	24.49, 8/10	"	" " "
"	"	"	24.50 to	25.49, 9/10	"	" " "
"	"	"	25.50 or over,	all	"	" " "

C. FREE TRANSPORTATION

Transportation is a second general problem in the granting of free high school privileges. While free tuition is an important factor in making a standard high school education possible to every boy and girl who desires it, it is by no means the only factor. There still remains the problem of getting the pupil to and from the high school he is to attend, and, if he cannot go home each day, of paying his room and board.

The necessity for providing transportation for elementary school pupils has been growing upon us for many years. The belief that the completion of a standard high school is desirable, in these days of social complexity, for the making of effective American citizens is becoming stronger and stronger, so that it seems certain that the demand for high school transportation in *every* state is only a matter of time.

In the last few years high school transportation has made considerable progress. It has not, however, been so generally recognized as has the principle of free high school tuition. This is natural. The farmer

⁸⁴*Laws of New Hampshire Relating to Public Schools, 1915, page 71.*

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who wished to send his son to the high school in the neighboring village was certain to think first of the tuition money he must pay. The boy could ride or drive the distance, but the tuition called for the immediate outlay of cash. Hence, attention was first directed to the tuition element in the question of securing free high school privileges. As the principle of providing these privileges without charge to the pupil has become more thoroughly established, and as the increasing number that wish transportation has made it more difficult for all to provide the means of conveyance on their own responsibility, the question of providing this transportation has come more and more into the focus of consciousness.

A brief analysis of types of laws providing high school transportation will suggest the increasing recognition of the importance of this problem and will be of assistance in determining the best methods for solving it.

1. *No Provision*

A careful study of the school laws of the various states and the results of a questionnaire sent to the different state departments of education indicate that most of the states have not yet adopted legislation on the subject.

2. *Done without Legal Sanction*

In Florida, at least, transportation of high school pupils, probably with elementary pupils, is done merely by general consent.⁸⁵

⁸⁵ "There is no statute law in Florida providing for transportation of high school or other pupils, but all counties, with few exceptions, furnish transportation to pupils when necessary, by general consent." Superintendent W. N. Sheats in letter, June 14, 1915.

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3. *Done under General Authority for Transportation of Elementary Pupils*

In several states this is the case, particularly in Georgia, Missouri, and Montana.⁸⁶ This is presumably done upon the principle that high school pupils should have the same opportunities as elementary school pupils, since all are included in the public schools. However, in some states where the high school is an integral part of the public school, special legislation has been passed in regard to transportation of high school pupils. This is the case in Michigan.

4. *Permissive*

In Maine,⁸⁷ Michigan,⁸⁸ and Nebraska⁸⁹ there are laws permitting the community to raise funds for the transportation of high school pupils. By implication Pennsylvania also belongs in this class.⁹⁰ Under certain conditions transportation must be furnished or tuition paid in a nearer high school.

5. *In Consolidated Districts*

Several states permit the transportation of high school pupils in consolidated school districts. In Arkansas special mention is not made of high school pupils, but the law has been interpreted to include them.⁹¹ In Ohio a special section of the law deals

⁸⁶ Information furnished by the different departments of public instruction.

⁸⁷ *Laws of Maine Relating to Public Schools, 1915*, section 78.

⁸⁸ *General School Laws of Michigan, 1913*, section 370.

⁸⁹ *Nebraska School Laws, 1915*, section 244.

⁹⁰ *School Laws of Pennsylvania, 1915*, section 1709.

⁹¹ *Digest of Laws Relating to Free Schools, Arkansas, 1914*, section 7547-o, and letter from Superintendent George B. Cook, December 14, 1915.

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with high school transportation.⁹² In Ohio the furnishing of transportation is required under certain conditions; in Arkansas it is optional.

6. *County Aid*

In California the county superintendent is required to include in the county tax for high school aid a sufficient amount to "reimburse all the high school districts of his county, for money actually expended by them for transportation of pupils living in territory in the county not included in any high school district, and attending the high schools of the county," not to exceed \$5 per month for each pupil so attending.⁹³

7. *State Aid*

In New Jersey the local Board of Education is required, when necessary, to furnish transportation to high schools. The state refunds 75 per cent of the cost.⁹⁴ Any town in Connecticut maintaining a high school may provide high school transportation, while any town not maintaining a high school is required to furnish it. In the latter case the state refunds one half the cost to the town, not exceeding \$20 per pupil.⁹⁵ In Massachusetts a town of less than 500 families not maintaining a high school is required to furnish transportation at a cost not to exceed \$1.50 per week. State aid is granted for this purpose on the following basis: If the school tax rate of the town is

⁹² *School Laws of Ohio, 1915*, section 7749.

⁹³ *School Laws of California, 1915*, section 1764.

⁹⁴ *New Jersey School Law, 1914*, sections 141 and 223 I (h), and information from New Jersey Department of Public Instruction, April 8, 1914.

⁹⁵ *Connecticut School Document, 1916*, sections 81-84.

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not less than \$4 and is less than \$5 per \$1000 of valuation, one half the cost of transportation is refunded to the town; if the rate is \$5 or more, the whole cost of transportation is refunded.⁹⁶

The discussion of principles underlying free tuition will have made clear how one should evaluate provisions for high school transportation. Laws such as those in California and Massachusetts, requiring the payment of this transportation, are superior, since they guarantee this opportunity to all in the state. As to how the other types should be ranked it is difficult to say. If consolidation has made great progress in a state, this method will probably be superior to a permissive law. As a matter of fact, the actual influence of a permissive law will depend largely upon the extent to which consolidation has been carried. From the point of view of equalization, the county law of California is greatly superior to those throwing the whole burden upon the district. The states providing state aid are, in general, still better because they provide a larger unit for raising the necessary funds and hence tend to equalize burdens among the different counties. Of these state aid laws, that of Massachusetts is most nearly ideal, since it provides for aid on the basis of taxes levied for school purposes, thus employing the most fundamental and constant factors for determining school needs.

D. MAINTENANCE OF PUPILS AT HIGH SCHOOL

There may be considerable difference between free high school tuition and transportation and free high school privileges. Provision for supplying the first

⁹⁶ *Revised Laws Relating to Public Instruction, Massachusetts, 1915*, page 17.

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two will mean free high school privileges only when the pupil can go home each evening. In some states there are many pupils living so far from the high school that transportation each day is not feasible, and it becomes necessary for them to secure room and board near the school. This is particularly true in the states of the Rocky Mountain region where the population is sparse and where, necessarily, standard high schools are not accessible, through transportation, to a large proportion of the boys and girls of high school age. Dr. W. A. Cook, of the University of Colorado, has collected some data on this matter in counties of his state maintaining county high schools.⁹⁷ He points out that in Colorado 19 of the 63 counties have county high schools; that about 34 per cent of the area of the state and 13 per cent of the school population of the state are in these county high school districts; that all of the county schools except one are over 10 miles from one or more post offices of their districts and that two thirds are over 25 miles from one or more post offices; that, finally, the percentage of attendance at these county high schools is only about one half as large as in ordinary high school districts.

Under such conditions, where transportation is not feasible, the pupil must pay from \$125 to \$250 each school year for room and board. If we accept the principle that each person should be provided those educational opportunities for which he can find legitimate use, an added responsibility in this matter is thrown upon some unit of school organization.

Very little has yet been done in this direction. South Dakota in 1915 passed the following:

⁹⁷ *Colorado School Journal*, XXX, page 7.

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"Whenever children of school age reside in territory not organized into a school district, it shall be the duty of the county commissioners to provide for the education of such children by making provision for the payment of their tuition in, and transportation to, some school in an organized school district, or by establishing schools in unorganized territory. Provided, that the board of county commissioners may, in lieu of providing transportation or establishing schools, expend a reasonable amount for room and board of said pupils whose attendance at school can be provided for, by such means, more economically and satisfactorily." ⁹⁸

This refers to elementary school pupils only. Vermont provides that every person of school age, residing at a distance of one and one half miles from an elementary school, shall be furnished with transportation, and "if such transportation is not feasible, such person shall be furnished with board whenever necessary to afford him an opportunity to attend school, and such board shall be paid by the state, not to exceed \$1 per week." ⁹⁹

So far as the writer has been able to discover, Nevada is the only state that has a law concerning the room and board of high school pupils. Section 184 of the 1915 School Code reads:

"The county board of education is hereby empowered to provide for the rental, purchase, or erection of a suitable dormitory or dormitories and dining hall for high school students, and to provide for the comfort, maintenance, and management of the same. The said dormitory or dormitories shall be considered part of the regular high school equipment and organization."

⁹⁸ *Laws Enacted by 1915 Legislature, South Dakota*, section 108 a (1).

⁹⁹ *Vermont School Laws, Acts of 1916*, section 72.

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A letter from the state department of education of Nevada (December 13, 1915) says that at that time some dormitory privileges were granted to pupils in 2 of their county high schools; that the dormitory buildings were not yet completed in any of the counties; that the pupils were not charged full-cost rates, the counties contributing something to these charges; and that after the dormitories are in operation pupils will have accommodation at exact cost, which will be approximately \$16 per month. Nevada will have made the logical step in providing free high school privileges when this cost is borne in part, at least, by the county or by some other unit.

The 1914 report of the inspector of high schools of North Carolina recommends the establishment of dormitories in connection with a central high school of each county, but evidently does not mean that board should be furnished free.¹⁰⁰

Only the mere beginnings have been made in the matter of taking the final step for insuring free high school privileges, but these beginnings are sufficient to justify the prediction that the next decade will see much progress in this direction.

¹⁰⁰ *7th Annual Report of State Inspector of Public High Schools of North Carolina*, page 15.

CHAPTER NINE

SPECIAL STATE AID FOR SPECIAL HIGH SCHOOL COURSES AND FOR HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND LABORATORIES

A. A STATUS OF THE METHOD

WITH the growth of interest in special lines of training such as home economics, agriculture, teacher training, and manual training, various states have found it desirable to give financial assistance for special courses in order to stimulate and direct their development. Table 28 gives the more essential facts concerning special state aid for such courses in high schools. The table is not complete; no attempt is made to give information concerning state aid for industrial courses that are evidently largely of elementary grade (e.g., Indiana), nor concerning special schools such as county agricultural high schools (e.g., Mississippi) and county normal training schools (e.g., Wisconsin). Where citations are not given the information comes from the various state departments.

So far as the writer has been able to discover, only 2 states give aid for high school libraries and laboratories. In Connecticut it is provided that every school district and every town maintaining a high school which raises by tax or otherwise a like sum to establish "a school library composed of books of reference, and other books to be used in connection with school work, and to procure maps, globes, or any proper geographical, philosophical, and chemical apparatus," shall receive \$10 from the state; \$5 is granted each year for maintaining the library and laboratory if the town raises an equal amount. If the actual attendance is over 100, \$5 additional may be given for every other

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TABLE 28

State	Purpose	Amount	Source	Form	Method of distribution
Arizona 1	Agriculture, mining, manual training, domestic science, and other vocational pursuits	Sum necessary, State Board of Education being the judge	Special appropriation	Variable appropriation	Sum equal to amount raised by district for this purpose, but not over \$2500
Florida 2	Normal training	\$25,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	\$500 to one high school in each county, providing county board appropriates equal amount or more
Iowa 4	Normal training	\$125,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	\$750 to each school. No high school receiving aid for vocational education entitled to this aid

1 *School Laws of Arizona, 1913*, paragraphs 2791-2794.

2 *Laws Relating to Schools Enacted by the Legislature, 1915* Chapter 6830.

3 Although the appropriation is sufficient to provide the amount allowed by law to one high school in each county, the giving of a definite sum would prevent the development of more normal training schools or would give a smaller sum to each where there is no limitation in the law as to the number of schools. The fund has, therefore, been classified as having a fixed-appropriation form.

4 *School Laws of Iowa, 1915*, pages 18-15.

5 This might be considered as a variable-appropriation form, since the state superintendent has the power to limit the number of schools that may be aided. However, since the definite appropriation makes it necessary to limit the extension of these courses in new schools or to give less aid to each, it has been classified in this way.

STATE AID FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

Kansas 6	Normal training	\$75,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	\$500 to each school but not more than \$1000 to any county
	Agriculture and domestic science	\$60,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	\$500 to schools with normal training courses that also give these courses
Louisiana 7	Home economics and agriculture.	\$75,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	Divided equally among the schools qualifying
Maine 8	Agriculture, domestic science and mechanic arts	\$50,000 9	General school fund	Fixed sum 9 from general school fund	Two-thirds cost of instruction, but not over \$500 per school. In certain cases the maximum is \$2000 10
Maryland 11	Commercial, manual training, industrial training, domestic science, agriculture		Special high school appropriation paid from general school fund	Proportional part high school fund	In first-class schools, \$400 for each of two special teachers; in second-class schools, \$400 for one special teacher
Massachusetts 12	Agriculture	\$6171 13	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	Two-thirds salaries of instructors, but not over \$10,000 to be expended by state for this purpose

6 *Common School Laws of Kansas, 1915, Chapter XXII.*

7 *Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1916, page 140.*

8 *Laws of Maine Relating to Public Schools 1915, section 138.*

9 *Ibid.*, section 139. This includes the aid given for industrial work in elementary schools and evening schools.

10 *Ibid.*, section 138.

11 *Public School Laws of Maryland, 1916, section 128.*

12 *Revised Laws Relating to Public Instruction, Massachusetts, 1915, pages 78, 79.* There is also provision for industrial schools of various types involving a reimbursement by the state of over \$200,000.

13 *78th Annual Report of Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1918-19, page 236.*

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

TABLE 28 (Continued)

State	Purpose	Amount	Source	Form	Method of distribution
Minnesota	Agriculture, commercial, ¹⁴ manual training, home training		General school fund	Proportional ¹⁵ part of general school fund	\$1000 for agricultural, \$600 each for other courses but not more than cost of salaries in different departments ¹⁴
	Teacher ¹⁴ training	\$151,780 ¹⁵	General school fund	Proportional ¹⁵ part of general school fund	\$1200-\$2800 according to number of teachers ¹⁴
Missouri ¹⁶	Teacher training	\$100,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	\$750, but not more than \$1200 to any county
Nebraska ¹⁷	Normal training	\$125,000 ¹⁸	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	\$700 to each school for the biennium
	Agriculture, manual training, home economics	\$50,000 ¹⁸	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	\$1250, but not more than one-half amount expended
Nevada ¹⁹	Normal training		Special appropriation	Variable appropriation	\$600-\$900 upon recommendation of state board of education. Only one school to a county

¹⁴ *Laws of Minnesota Relating to Public Schools, 1915*, sections 192, 193.

¹⁵ Information from state department of education. According to this information the money for these purposes is paid from the state appropriation for schools, these appropriations being insufficient in the last two years to pay the full amount allowed by law.

¹⁶ *Revised School Laws of Missouri, 1913*, pages 98-100.

¹⁷ *Nebraska School Laws, 1915*, sections 137-149.

¹⁸ Information from state department of education.

¹⁹ *School Code of Nevada, 1916*, sections 185-190.

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New York 20	Training classes	\$100,000 21	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	\$700 to each school and remainder of fund on basis of aggregate attendance
North Dakota 23	Industrial, trade, agriculture, mechanical arts, home making 22		State school funds	Variable part of state school funds	Two thirds salary of teacher, not to exceed \$1000. One third salary for each additional teacher, not to exceed \$1000 for each teacher 22
	Agriculture, manual training, domestic science		Part of high school appropriation of \$85,000	Fixed part of high school fund	\$2500 to each of 5 schools
	Teacher training		Part of high school appropriation	Fixed part of high school fund	Not more than \$1000 to each of 5 schools
South Carolina 24	Agriculture, manual training, domestic science		Part of high school appropriation	Indefinite part of high school fund	To be determined by state board on basis of "meritorious work"
	Agriculture, home economics, manual training, etc.		High school fund which is part of general school fund	Indefinite part of high school fund	Under direction of state board for "stimulating and encouraging" such work. To be done only if there is money left after regular appropriations to county high schools are made
Tennessee 25					

20 *Education Law of New York, 1914, section 502.*

21 *Annual Report of Education Department, New York, 1915, page 49.*

22 *Education Law of New York, 1914, sections 600-607.*

23 *General School Laws of North Dakota, 1916, sections 1438-1435.*

24 *General School Law of South Carolina, 1916, sections, 1812f, 1812h, 1812i.*

25 *Public School Laws of Tennessee, 1918, pages 78, 74.*

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

TABLE 28 (Continued)

State	Purpose	Amount	Source	Form	Method of distribution
Texas 26	Agriculture, domestic economy, manual training	\$50,000 27	Special 27 appropriation	Fixed 27 appropriation	\$500-\$1500 each for agriculture, domestic economy, manual training; not more than \$2000 in all to one school. Amount given by state to be duplicated by district and no school to be aided more than twice 26
Vermont 28	One or more of: Agriculture, manual arts, commercial, domestic science	\$5000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	State board to apportion money so as "to equalize the facilities afforded by such courses and the burden of maintaining the same."
Virginia 31	Teacher 29 training	\$45,000 30	Special 30 appropriation from school fund	Fixed sum 30 from general school fund	Salaries of teachers paid by state 29
	Teacher training	\$15,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	State board to apportion, but not more than \$1500 to any school

26 *Public School Laws of Texas, 1915*, section 195.

27 *Texas High Schools*, page 21. Bulletin of the Department of Education, No. 58.

28 *Vermont School Laws, 1915*, pages 40, 41.

29 *Ibid.*, pages 21, 22.

30 *Ibid.*, page 35.

31 *Virginia School Laws, 1915*, sections 95, 96, 151.

STATE AID FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

	Agriculture, domestic science, manual training	\$32,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	Distributed by state board for maintaining courses in at least one high school in each congressional district
West Virginia 32	Normal training		Part of special appropriation for high schools	Fixed part of high school fund	\$400 to each of not more than 10 high schools
Wisconsin 33	Manual training, domestic science, agriculture	\$100,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	One half amount expended, but not over \$350 for each department where subject is taught in both high school and grammar grades, and not over \$250 when subject is taught in high school only. No district to receive aid for more than 8 departments
	Teacher training	Paid from appropriation of \$100,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	Amount expended for teachers' salaries
	Commercial	Paid from appropriation of \$100,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation	One half amount expended, not over \$350 to each school

32 *School Laws of West Virginia, 1915, section 29a.*
33 *Laws of Wisconsin Relating to Common Schools, 1915, pages 311-313.*

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

100 pupils or fractional part of 100.³⁴ It is quite clear that this law, enacted in 1856 and amended in 1869 to include high schools,³⁵ does not give a sufficient sum really to stimulate a library or a laboratory equipment that would meet present-day standards. In 1839³⁶ New York began giving assistance for high schools from its Literature Fund. The present law reads:

"To each union free school district maintaining an academic department an allowance equal to the amount raised from local sources, but not to exceed \$268 annually and two dollars additional for each teacher employed in said district for the legal term, for approved books, reproductions of standard works of art, and apparatus."³⁶

In 1912-13, \$139,996.50 was expended for this purpose.³⁷

B. METHODS OF DISTRIBUTION

Table 29 gives a summary of the methods employed.

It is particularly interesting to note that in 6 cases, 4 for industrial work and 2 for teacher training, the state board is given power to distribute the funds without a statutory statement of how it is to be done. In South Carolina this apportionment is to be on the basis of "meritorious work"; in Tennessee, the money is to be used for "stimulating and encouraging" such subjects; in Vermont, in such a way as "to equalize the facilities afforded by such courses and the burden of maintaining the same."

³⁴ *Laws Relating to Schools, Connecticut, 1916*, section 248.

³⁵ Information from state department of education.

³⁶ *New York Education Law, 1914*, section 493 (4).

³⁷ *Annual Report of New York Education Department, 1914*, page 140.

STATE AID FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

TABLE 29

	Teacher training	Industrial	Libraries and labo- ratories	Total
1. Amount raised by local district:				
a. With maximum stated	1	2	2	5
b. Without maxi- mum stated	0	0	0	0
2. Specified sum to each school	6	2	0	8
3. Equal share of state fund	0	1	0	1
4. Number of teachers.	1	1	0	2
5. School and attend- ance	1	0	0	1
6. Cost of instruction:				
a With maximum stated	0	7	0	7
b. Without maxi- mum stated ...	2	0	0	2
7. According to discre- tion of state board	2	4	0	6
Total	13	17	2	32

CHAPTER TEN

THE SOURCES AND THE FORMS OF STATE HIGH SCHOOL FUNDS

IN Table 28, Chapter IX, data were given in regard to the sources and the forms of the funds providing state aid for special high school courses, but no explanation was made at that point in regard to the significance of those data. In this chapter it is proposed to analyze the sources and the forms of all special state aid funds to determine what influence the source and the form may have upon the effectiveness of the fund.

Table 30 gives the sources and the forms of the funds providing special state aid for general high school purposes, while Table 31 gives similar data concerning state aid for free high school tuition, Table 32 for libraries and laboratories, and Table 33 for transportation. These tables show that for all forms of special aid there are 4 general sources: appropriation for the particular purpose; special high school tax; the general state school fund; and the state high school fund. Where citations are not given the information comes from the state department of education.

A. FORMS OF HIGH SCHOOL FUNDS

These tables show also that 11 different forms of special high school aid funds are found, as follows:

1. *A fixed appropriation* is a specified amount, set aside for a particular purpose. Thus, Louisiana gives \$50,000 to be distributed among the approved high schools of the state.

2. *A variable appropriation* is an arrangement

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whereby the aid provided by law is guaranteed each school, no matter what the demands upon the fund may be. Rhode Island is an illustration of this form, since the state each year appropriates enough to supply the demands.

3. *A definite high school tax* is a specified tax rate, e. g., two tenths of one mill in Utah, levied for high schools.

4. *A variable high school tax* form leaves the rate that must be levied to be determined by the demands, which are based upon some school factor. In California, \$15 per pupil is to be raised, so that the rate levied is likely to differ from year to year.

5. *A fixed sum from the high school fund* is a form whereby there is set aside from the money given for high schools a specified sum to be used for a particular purpose. Thus, North Dakota gives \$2500 to each of 5 schools for agricultural courses and provides that this is to be paid from the state appropriation of \$85,000 before payments are made for other purposes.

6. *An indefinite part of the high school fund* is a form that gives from the money for high schools an amount, usually determined by the demands upon the fund for general high school purposes, to be used for a specified purpose. Since the part given for this purpose does not necessarily, from one year to another, bear a definite relation to the part used for general high school purposes, this form is called "indefinite." For example, the state board in Tennessee may use a part of any money left, after aid for general purposes is paid, for "stimulating and encouraging" industrial work.

7. *A proportional part of the high school fund* is a form that provides aid for special purposes in such a

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way that these special purposes share on the same basis as that used for granting aid for general high school purposes. In Maryland aid is given on the basis of teachers employed; vocational teachers share this fund with the regular teachers, though at a different rate per teacher.

8. *A variable part of the high school fund* is a form that pays out of the high school fund the aid for a certain phase of work before the general distribution is made, thus insuring that the full amount allowed by law is given. In New York the aid for libraries and apparatus is paid before aid is given for any other purpose.

9. *A fixed sum from the general school fund* is an arrangement whereby a definite sum is set aside from the general school fund for certain high school purposes. For example, in Maine \$50,000 is set aside for industrial courses from the "school and mill" fund.

10. *A proportional part of the general school fund* is a form that gives a certain percentage of the fund for high schools. In Idaho 3 per cent is given for this purpose.

11. *A variable part of the general school fund* is a form that gives aid for high schools before the general distribution is made. Thus, New Jersey pays the money due for teachers and for tuition and transportation before distribution is made for attendance.

It will be noticed that this classification of forms of funds is based upon the source of the fund and its power of expanding to meet increasing demands for high school purposes. Attention should be called to the fact that the term "general school fund" does not always mean all moneys given by the state for general public school purposes. This is the situation in Ten-

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nessee, where the high school aid is paid from the General Education Fund, which does not include the income from the permanent school fund. It is also the case in Minnesota, where the aid for these special courses is paid from the appropriations for education which constitute part of the whole state revenue for schools.

B. STATUS OF THE VARIOUS SOURCES AND FORMS

TABLE 30
SPECIAL AID FOR GENERAL HIGH SCHOOL PURPOSES

State	Amount ¹	Source	Form
Alabama	\$152,000	Special Appropriation ²	Variable appropriation
California	642,815	State high school tax ³	Variable tax rate ³
Idaho		General school ⁴ fund — 3 percent	Proportional part general school fund ⁴
Louisiana	50,000	Special appropriation ⁵	Fixed appropriation ⁶
Maine	141,000	Special appropriation	Variable appropriation
Maryland	118,100	General school fund	Fixed sum from general school fund
Massachusetts	23,500	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation
Minnesota	407,500	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation ⁷
Missouri	96,502	Not over 5 percent state school fund ⁸	Proportional part state school fund ⁸
New Jersey		State school fund ⁹	Variable part state school fund ⁹

¹ In some states — e.g., Alabama — when the variable-appropriation form is used the sum indicated is that actually paid out in some recent year for this purpose.

² *General Public School Laws of Alabama, 1915, section 1862.*

³ *School Law of California, 1915, section 1760.*

⁴ *School Laws of Idaho, 1915, section 67.*

⁵ *Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1916, page 140.*

⁶ *Ibid., and Requirements for State Approval of Louisiana High Schools, 1918, page 7.*

⁷ *Laws of Minnesota Relating to the Public School System, 1915, sections 186-196.*

⁸ *Revised School Laws of Missouri, 1913, page 96.*

⁹ *New Jersey School Law, 1914, Section 233 I.* Aid is first given on the basis of the number of teachers employed, the remainder of the fund being distributed on the basis of attendance.

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

TABLE 30 (Continued)

State	Amount	Source	Form
New York	\$327,544	Literature fund 10	Variable part literature fund
North Carolina	75,000	Special appropriation 11	Fixed appropriation 11
North Dakota	72,500	Special appropriation 12	Fixed appropriation 12
Pennsylvania	225,000	Special appropriation 13	Fixed appropriation 14
Rhode Island	17,550	Special appropriation	Variable appropriation
South Carolina	60,000	Special appropriation 15	Fixed appropriation 15
Tennessee	50,855	General Education Fund — 8 per cent 16	Proportional part of General Education Fund 16
Utah	100,000	Special high school tax 17	Definite tax rate 17
Vermont		General school fund	Variable part general school fund
Virginia	50,000	Special appropriation 18	Fixed appropriation 18
Washington	259,037	General school fund 19	Variable part general school fund 20
West Virginia	85,000	Special appropriation	Variable appropriation
Wisconsin	175,000	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation

10 *Annual Report of Education Department, New York, 1914*, pages 138, 140. The amounts given for books and apparatus, for academic departments, and for tuition are first paid, the remainder being distributed on the basis of attendance. The regular Literature Fund has, in recent years, been supplemented by a special state appropriation.

11 *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, page 55.

12 *General School Law of North Dakota, 1915*, section 1433.

13 *Report of Superintendent of Public Schools, Pennsylvania, 1915*, page 14.

14 *School Laws of Pennsylvania, 1915*, section 1713.

15 *General School Law of South Carolina, 1916*, section 18124.

16 *Public School Laws of Tennessee, 1913*, page 72. This General Education Fund does not constitute the entire state school fund; it is made up of 33 1/3 per cent of the gross revenues of the state.

17 *School Law of Utah, 1915*, page 41.

18 *Virginia School Laws, 1915*, section 94.

19 *Code of Public Instruction, Washington, 1913*, Sections 249, 252.

20 The appropriation of \$100 for each high school grade maintained is evidently paid before the general apportionment is made. See *The Apportionment of the Current State School Fund of Washington, 1916*, page 16.

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TABLE 31

SPECIAL AID FOR HIGH SCHOOL TUITION

State	Amount	Source	Form
Connecticut	\$42,968 ²¹	Special appropriation	Variable appropriation
Delaware	22,000	State school fund	Variable part state school fund
Maine	24,272 ²²	High school appropriation	Variable part high school appropriation
Massachusetts	56,152 ²³	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation
New Jersey		General school fund ²⁴	Variable part general school fund ²⁴
New Hampshire	21,232 ²⁵		
New York	322,398 ²⁶	Literature Fund ²⁷	Variable part literature fund ²⁷
North Carolina	2,250 ²⁸	High school appropriation ²⁹	Indefinite part of high school fund ²⁹
Rhode Island	10,790	High school appropriation	Variable part high school appropriation
Vermont		General school fund	Variable part general school fund

TABLE 32

SPECIAL AID FOR HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND LABORATORIES

State	Amount	Source	Form
Connecticut		Special appropriation	Variable appropriation
New York ³⁰	\$189,996	Literature Fund	Variable part of Literature Fund

²¹ *Report of Board of Education, Connecticut, 1913*, page 197.

²² *Maine School Report, 1915*, page 197.

²³ *78th Annual Report of Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1918-14*, page 159.

²⁴ *New Jersey School Law, 1914*, section 223 I.

²⁵ *New Hampshire School Report, 1918-14*, page 203.

²⁶ *Annual Report, New York Education Department, 1914*, page 140.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, page 138. Apparently the state has adopted the policy of adding by appropriation to the revenue of the permanent funds belonging to the Literature Fund enough to meet the demands for special state aid.

²⁸ *7th Annual Report of State Inspector of High Schools, North Carolina*, pages 42-49.

²⁹ *Public School Law of North Carolina, 1915*, pages 53-55.

³⁰ See notes 26 and 27 of this chapter.

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

TABLE 33
SPECIAL AID FOR HIGH SCHOOL TRANSPORTATION

State	Amount	Source	Form
Connecticut	\$16,337 31	Special appropriation	Variable appropriation
New Jersey 32		General school fund	Variable part general school fund
Massachusetts 33	19,188	Special appropriation	Fixed appropriation

In Table 34 we have a distribution of the states among the different special funds and the 4 sources.

TABLE 34

	General high school purposes	Special courses	Tuition	Li-braries	Trans- portation	Total
Special appropriation	13	19	2	1	2	37
Special high school tax	2	0	0	0	0	2
High school fund.	1	6	4	1	0	12
General school fund.	7	5	3	0	1	16

This indicates that the special appropriation is by far the most frequent source for special state aid funds.

In Table 35 we have a distribution of the states among the different special funds and the 11 forms.

TABLE 35

	General high school purposes	Special courses	Tuition	Li-braries	Trans- portation	Total
Fixed appropriation.	9	17	1	0	1	28
Variable appropriation	4	2	1	1	1	9
Definite high school tax	1	0	0	0	0	1
Variable high school tax	1	0	0	0	0	1
Fixed sum from high school fund	0	3	0	0	0	3

31 *Report of Board of Education, Connecticut, 1913, page 201.*

32 See note 24 of this chapter.

33 See note 23 of this chapter.

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TABLE 35 (Continued)

	General high school purposes	Special courses	Tuition	Li- braries	Trans- porta- tion	Total
Indefinite part of high school fund..	0	2	1	0	0	3
Proportional part of high school fund..	0	1	0	0	0	1
Variable sum from high school fund..	1	0	3	1	0	5
Fixed sum from gen- eral school fund..	1	2	0	0	0	3
Proportional part of general school fund	3	2	0	0	0	5
Variable sum from general school fund	3	1	3	0	1	8

According to this table the fixed-appropriation form is found much more frequently than any other form. The variable-appropriation and the variable-sum-from-general-school-fund are the next most frequent forms.

C. AN EVALUATION OF THESE SOURCES AND FORMS

Of what significance is the source and the form of the funds used for special state aid? An evaluation may be made from two particularly important points of view: (1) their effect upon the supplying of an increased support fund as the demands on the part of the high schools increase; (2) their effect upon the development of a unified state school system.

In taking up the first phase of this problem, a distinction must be made between the development of an increased support to meet the *increased cost of maintaining individual schools* and to meet the increased demands due to the *development of new schools*. Primarily, the supplying of an increased support to meet the increased cost of maintaining individual schools depends upon the method of distributing the state fund. Thus, where \$800 is given for a first-grade high school, the failure of the state aid to increase as the cost of the high school increases is not due to the form

PROBLEMS IN STATE HIGH SCHOOL FINANCE

of the state fund but to the fact that the method of distribution limits the amount that may be given. The same may be said of most of the other methods of distribution. In some cases, however, the form as well as the method of distribution has some effect. For example, the variable-high-school-tax form of the California law makes it possible for the amount that is given a school to increase indefinitely, a situation which is in marked contrast to the Rhode Island law, where there is a limitation in regard to the number of pupils in a school for whom aid may be given. It is understood, of course, that such limitation of the amount that may be given a school frequently adds to the equalizing value of a law (see Chapter IV).

The form of the fund has a decided effect upon meeting the increased demands due to an increase in the number of schools entitled to assistance. By analyzing the classification of forms presented above it may be seen that if the *source* of the state fund is ignored, there are 5 forms only: (1) a fixed sum; (2) a proportional rate; (3) a definite rate; (4) an indefinite sum; (5) a variable sum or rate.

Under the fixed-sum form a certain amount of money is set aside for a particular high school purpose, and since there is only the specified sum available either new schools must run the risk of being denied assistance due to the exhaustion of the fund or the amount that is given each school must be reduced below the maximum allowed by law. An illustration of this is seen in Table 36, where information is given concerning special state high school aid in North Dakota. Of the 16 years for which data are given there were only 4 years in which the high schools received the amount to which they were entitled by law. The full sum was

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TABLE 36 ²⁴

Year	Appropriation	Amount intended for each school			Amount received by each school		
		First class	Second class	Third class	First class	Second class	Third class
1899	\$4,000	\$175	\$140	\$100	\$175	\$140	\$100
1900		175	140	100	175	140	100
1901		175	140	100	175	140	100
1902		175	140	100	160	125	85
1903	10,000	400	300	200	350	270	180
1904		400	300	200	325	250	165
1905	25,000	800	600	...	750	550	...
1906		800	600	...	750	550	...
1907	45,000	800	500	300	800	500	300
1908		800	500	300	720	450	270
1909	45,000	800	500	300	720	450	270
1910		800	500	300	640	400	240
1911	45,000	800	500	300	600	375	225
1912	57,500	800	500	300	640	400	240
1913	77,500	800	500	300	720	450	270
1914	85,000	800	500	300	544	340	204

given in 3 of these years because of the slow development of high schools; in the fourth year it was due to an increase in the appropriation from \$25,000 to \$45,000. Furthermore, it will be seen that this increase was sufficient to accomplish its purpose for the 1 year only; that it was 5 years before another increase was secured, and that the sum then appropriated was insufficient to give the full amount to each school. Other states — e. g., Pennsylvania ²⁵ and Wisconsin ²⁶ — have had the same difficulty to meet. In fact, the law of Pennsylvania provides that “if the appropriation is insufficient to pay the maximum amounts, . . . the appropriation shall be distributed to the schools of the respective grades in such a manner that each school shall receive its pro rata share thereof.” ²⁷

²⁴ *8th Annual Report of Inspector of High Schools, North Dakota, 1915*, page 42.

²⁵ Information from the state department of education.

²⁶ *16th Biennial Report of Department of Public Instruction, 1912-14*, page 95.

²⁷ *School Laws of Pennsylvania, 1915*, section 1713.

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West Virginia labored under this handicap for several years,³⁸ but the new law makes it necessary to appropriate the sum that will give the aid provided. In some cases — e.g., Massachusetts — an additional appropriation is made at the next legislature to cover the deficiency.³⁹

The proportional-rate form sets aside a certain percentage of the state fund — e. g., 3 per cent in Idaho, 5 per cent in Missouri — for the purpose specified. The advantage of the proportional-rate form is that it enables the high school to share in the same proportion as other phases of school work for which the money is available. If the fund increases, the high school gets its share; if the fund does not increase as rapidly as do the needs of the schools, the high school is limited by a definite proportion. The disadvantages of this form are: (1) there is no certainty that the proportion set aside for, let us say, general high school purposes, represents correctly the needs of the high school as compared with other parts of the school system; (2) it may not give the full amount allowed by law to each school. Thus, in Idaho the high school share in a county may not be enough to provide \$200 per teacher, while in Missouri it was anticipated that the fund might be inadequate, a situation that has actually arisen (see page 82). A slight modification of this form is found in Maryland. There aid is given to high schools on the basis of the number of teachers, within certain limits, that are employed. The rate for different types of teachers differs, but vocational teachers are as certain as regular teachers to receive the aid to

³⁸ *Report of State Supervisor of High Schools, West Virginia, 1913-14*, page 21.

³⁹ Information from state department of education.

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which they are entitled. According to the state department of education new schools are not approved unless there is sufficient money to give the aid allowed by law.

The definite-tax form makes a definite levy, the proceeds of which are to be distributed among the high schools that qualify. As the property valuation increases the income becomes greater, but this increase may or may not keep pace with the legitimate demands upon the fund. In most respects it has the advantages and the disadvantages of the proportional-rate form.

The indefinite-sum form enables each school to get what it is allowed by law, but only because the law refrains from stating what is to be given for this purpose. In the few cases in which the form is found, the state board has power to distribute a part of the high school fund for certain purposes according to its discretion. While the method of distribution is desirable because of its flexibility, the limited amount that is likely to be available in the existing cases does not have a sufficiently stimulating effect upon the development of these lines of work. What is needed, however, is more money rather than a different form for this kind of aid; with sufficient money it may be a most effective form.

The variable-sum or variable-rate form insures that all high schools that can qualify will receive all the assistance to which they are entitled by the state aid law. The variable-sum form is illustrated by Rhode Island, where the state appropriates whatever is needed to meet the obligations of the state for this purpose. The second type is found in New Jersey, where the aid given to teachers is paid from the general school fund first, any amount remaining being distributed according to

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attendance. The obvious advantage of this form is that each high school receives what the law grants it, and each high school is usually able to estimate rather well what it will receive from the state. A possible disadvantage of this form in some states comes because the aid for general high school purposes or some phase of high school aid is paid before any other distribution is made. Thus, in Washington the \$100 allowed for each high school grade is deducted first of all from the general school fund, and in New York the amount allowed for library and apparatus is deducted from the Literature Fund before other high school assistance is given. Such a situation may not do any harm, yet its lack of flexibility is not to be encouraged. In those cases in which the high school fund comes from a special appropriation and not from a school fund, there can of course be no criticism on this score.

In turning to the second point of view for evaluating sources and forms, their effect upon the development of a unified school system, one is again unable to draw definite conclusions because of the complexity of the factors involved.

According to Table 35 there are 37 cases in which some form of appropriation for different high school purposes is used, 16 cases of some form of the general school fund, 12 cases of some form of high school fund, and 2 cases of some form of special high school tax.

The following arguments may be urged against the uniting of school funds as is done in those states paying special state aid from the general school funds or paying for special courses or tuition from the high school funds: (1) Such action may have some effect upon the reduction of the total amount given for schools. In such states as North Dakota, Alabama,

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and West Virginia, where special appropriations are made or where the money comes from the state treasury, the special high school aid is so much added to the support of schools. In other cases, such as Missouri and Idaho, the special aid is paid from the regular school fund and to all appearances no additional money is put into the fund to meet this new demand. The validity of this objection will, however, depend upon the educational sentiment of the state. If the state realizes the necessity of giving a larger share of its state revenue for schools as the demand for a more effective education increases, then this argument would have no weight. In states where there is a state tax providing a large share of the general school fund or where a certain percentage of the entire revenue of the state is set aside for schools, as in Tennessee, the income for schools increases automatically with the increase in the wealth of the state. (2) The discontinuance of special funds for different purposes may have some effect in retarding the development of new phases of high school work. The most common source of aid has been a special appropriation, given from time to time as the needs of certain aspects of high school work in the state demanded it. It is a debatable question as to whether the existence of a single school fund would make it unduly difficult to secure aid for some new phase of high school work should such aid be considered necessary for its proper development. In this connection it is interesting to note that in 11 of the 30 cases of aid for special high school courses the money comes from the high school fund or from the general school fund.

In favor of a unification of funds the following arguments may be presented: (1) It reduces the number

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of funds for school purposes and therefore the difficulty of distributing them. We have in Maryland a good illustration of a large number of funds. The survey commission has recommended the abolition of some funds and the combination of all others, to be called the general state school fund.⁴⁰ (2) It may make the high school and the elementary school seem more of a unit than has frequently been the case. In Chapter VI it was pointed out that in many states action should be taken to protect the elementary school and to regulate the establishment of high schools. A unified fund is not necessary to accomplish this, but in so far as such a fund tends to develop more clearly the concept of a unified public school system, to that extent will the unified form of the fund be found of advantage. If the unification of the funds tends also to bring about the use of more uniform methods of distributing funds so that the problem of equalization is recognized as belonging to the whole school system rather than to the separate parts, much good will have been accomplished.⁴¹

If this unification of funds is achieved, we are apparently brought back to the situation that existed in most of the states before the development of special

⁴⁰ Flexner and Bachman, *Public Education in Maryland*, Chapter XII.

⁴¹ There are various degrees to which this unification might be carried. One is illustrated in Tennessee. There the General Education Fund, which is composed of 33-1/3 per cent of the gross state revenues, is divided into certain parts as follows: 61 per cent to the counties on the basis of scholastic population; 10 per cent for more nearly equalizing the common schools, for developing industrial work in rural schools, and for encouraging the establishment of consolidated schools; 8 per cent for assisting in the maintenance of county high schools; 1 per cent for public school libraries; 13 per cent for the establishment and maintenance of normal schools; 7 per cent to the University of Tennessee.

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state aid for high schools, when there was a general school fund that could be used in part for high school purposes if the local districts so desired. There are, however, important differences in the two situations.

(1) The special state aid granted high schools has done much to give the high schools a definite place in our public school system by indicating to the people of the state the necessity for such schools and by encouraging poor communities to build such institutions. Even in those states not giving this special aid high school education has doubtless been stimulated through the knowledge of what was being done in states receiving special aid. New York and Maine in the East, Wisconsin and Minnesota in the Middle West, and California in the West have for many years been looked upon as pace setters in the development of secondary education. In more recent years the same may be said of North Carolina and South Carolina in the South.

(2) The methods of distributing these special high school funds, analyzed in Chapters IV and VII, lead one to believe that there has been considerable experimentation looking toward some method that will give the aid to the different communities on the basis of need and effort. To all appearances there has not been the same degree of experimentation in distributing the general school funds (though certain states like Massachusetts and New Hampshire are marked exceptions), so that special state aid for high schools has doubtless done much to bring about ultimate improvements in methods of state apportionment.

(3) Special state aid for high schools has also given us many valuable experiences. It has shown us how great an influence the state may have in improving the quality of secondary school training through the setting of minimum

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standards that a community must meet before it may share in the state funds for high schools. It has shown us the danger of allowing the high school to expand at the expense of the elementary school and without regard to the needs of the community, so that we doubtless have a more adequate conception of what a really effective school system means than was the case before special high school aid developed.

Almost the same may be said about special state aid for such specific purposes as free tuition and transportation, high school libraries and laboratories, and special high school courses. Special aid has hastened the development of these aspects of secondary school work. In many, perhaps in most states, this aid is still needed for some of these purposes in order to stimulate their development to the proper extent, but it is nevertheless true that a tendency is showing itself to accomplish the same purpose by other means. For instance, special aid for high school libraries and laboratories is, so far as the writer has been able to discover, given only in New York and Connecticut, states that began this form of aid many years ago. That more states have not adopted this plan does not mean that libraries and laboratories are neglected; merely that the means of achieving the goal has been changed. Now, practically every state requires, through its statement of minimum standards, proper library and laboratory facilities. Maryland has discontinued the aid it once gave for manual training and commercial work and now seeks to accomplish the same purpose through its general high school aid law.⁴² Idaho requires that the course of study for rural high schools receiving state aid on

⁴² Snyder, Edwin R., *Legal Status of Rural High Schools*, pages 114-116, and *Public School Laws of Maryland, 1916*, section 128.

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the basis of teachers employed "shall include instruction in manual training, domestic science, nature study, and the elements of agriculture."⁴³ The Pennsylvania law makes it necessary that township high schools receiving state aid "shall give such instruction in agriculture as the superintendent of public instruction shall prescribe."⁴⁴ The new Vermont law requires that instruction in at least one vocational subject shall be given in both junior and senior high schools.⁴⁵ These illustrations are sufficient to show that in some states, at least, the sentiment for certain lines of high school work has become so strong that requirements may be made without giving aid specifically for those lines.

This period of special state aid for high schools and for various high school activities may, therefore, be thought of as a period of training which has made us see more clearly than might otherwise have been the case the importance of a secondary school training, the necessity for extending our conception of a free secondary school and the breadth of training to be given in such a school, and certain dangers that must be avoided if we are to have a really effective school system. When this training is accomplished we may, therefore, return to a system of public school support by the state less complex than those systems now employed in several states, using a single fund from which all moneys may be paid. Doubtless that time has not arrived in all states, and the slowness of the legislative machinery may put it far in the future for some states; but the tendencies given above indicate that some such plan may ultimately be adopted. What new phases of

⁴³ *School Laws of Idaho, 1915*, section 137f.

⁴⁴ *School Laws of Pennsylvania, 1915*, section 1713.

⁴⁵ *Vermont School Laws, 1915*, pages 39-41.

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secondary training will develop no one can say ; whether these ought to be stimulated by special aid is likewise a matter of speculation. Certainly it is true that America has never had the secondary school consciousness it now has, so that it is not unlikely that in the future we shall not have to resort to the stimulating measures that have seemed desirable in the past.

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